

Childhood Education

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**Programming for Growth
Through School Structure
and Finance**

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JOURNAL OF THE ASSOCIATION FOR CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

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Childhood Education

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To Stimulate Thinking Rather Than Advocate Fixed Practice*

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Next Month—

The third issue on programming for growth of children at school will deal with school housing and administration. Three articles will develop the section on administration: "How Administration Contributes to Child Growth" by Willard E. Goslin, superintendent of schools, Minneapolis; "Responsibilities of the School Board" by Herbert B. Mulford, former president of the Illinois Association of School Board Members; and "Planning for the Child Under Six" by Mary Davis, U. S. Office of Education.

The school housing section will deal with "Housing the City School of Tomorrow" by Nicholas Englehardt, associate superintendent of New York City Schools; "Planning the Small Town and Rural School" by John E. Nichols, Hartford, Connecticut; and "Cooperative School Planning" by Earl M. Towner, principal of the Whittier School, Seattle, Washington.

The section on school housing will be illustrated with charts, graphs and floor plans.

EXTRA COPIES—Orders for reprints from this issue must be received by the Standard Press, 920 I Street, N. W., Washington 1, D. C., by the tenth of the month of issue.

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IMPORTANT LEARNING CAN HAPPEN ANYWHERE

The Elementary School of Tomorrow

--- Its Possible Structure

"Structure only means the parts of something and how they are put together. Our educational structure has been a long time a-building and it is quite possible that its parts may not be good enough for the job, or that they may be squeaky in some of the joints." Miss Goodykoontz, assistant commissioner of education, U. S. Office of Education, names some of the "parts" that are not good enough, tells how some of the "squeaks" can be removed and points out the need for general overhauling and rebuilding of today's school structure if it is to meet children's needs both now and in the future.

AS THE NEWSPAPER CLIPPINGS travel past my desk I can see that things are different in the schools this year. They say, for example:

Increased birth rates of the past five years show up in kindergarten and 1A classes. (Philadelphia)

The schools still are short about twenty teachers—the shortage most serious in elementary grades, music and physical education. (Salt Lake City)

Net gain of 472 pupils in elementary schools—several hundred children now waiting to get into kindergarten. (Denver)

Large increase in secondary schools expected as teen-agers who left to take war jobs return to school. (Philadelphia)

Lessons changed almost as much as the world's history—radio and television broadcasts and discussions of the United Nations Charter included. (New York City)

Converting back to a twelve-year school system. (Salt Lake City)

Counseling service expecting fifty additional veterans daily. (Los Angeles)

Defense plant lay-offs have not yet affected Portland's school population. (Portland)

Because the local birth rate took a spurt in 1937 and increased ever since, annual increases anticipated in school enrollment. (Des Moines)

Enrollment increased by 5,000. (Washington, D. C.)

A diversified eleven-month program forecast, built around pupils' life needs and creative interests. (Cleveland)

Another innovation is pre-kindergarten classes for four-year-olds in five schools. (New York City)

What is Happening in the Schools?

Such statements point up some apparent trends. In the first place, the schools must expect a larger clientele than they have had in recent years. For a decade before the war, the continuous decline of the birth rate had resulted in constant decreases in the enrollments of all elementary school grades, and the effect was already being felt in high schools. But beginning with 1940 the birth rate increased each year for four years and then slowly decreased. Already the kindergartens and first grades throughout the country are feeling the effect of the increase. Specifically it means that in an elementary school in which there was one kindergarten before, now there must be two. Next year that school will need two first grades instead of one, and so on. Since the increase in number of births extended over a four- or five-year period, that same school will need each of those double grades for four or five years, before the need gradually lessens. This will make a sort of wave of double grades, four or five

years wide, going through the elementary school and on to the high school.

If the experience of the last war is repeated there will be another period of increased birth rates now that the armed forces are returning, families are re-established and new homes are made. The time and length of this period of increased birth rates will depend upon demobilization policies and the economic situation. There may be another three- or four-year wave of increased enrollments moving grade by grade through the schools. This means that for another fifteen years, at least, there must be continual adjustment in space, staff, materials, and expenditures.

From now on, too, we will hear more about educational programs for certain groups of people who have not been served, or served adequately in the past—young children, returning war workers, veterans, and parents, among others. For example, truly impressive changes took place in state laws regarding educational services for young children during the war. There is a sort of progression to be expected in this field, running like this: (1) the state gives local districts authority to establish kindergartens and in most cases to use their own local funds for them (all but one state have done this); (2) the state authorizes local districts to use state funds for kindergartens (twenty-nine states have done this); (3) the state authorizes local districts to establish nursery schools and use their own local funds for them (ten states have done this); (4) the state authorizes local districts to use state funds for nursery schools or other similar programs for children lower than kindergarten age (five states have done this). Already we are seeing the results of such legislation in the expansion of kindergarten facilities and the establishment of nursery schools or other educational programs for four- and even three-year-olds.

Returning war workers and veterans bring different problems. Some know what they want and go for it directly. Others find it difficult or impossible to find the specific kind of training they want in their own communities. Early estimates of the number who will take advantage of the GI educational service have been discouraging, probably for a variety of reasons, one of them being the difficulties schools face in providing eighth grade work to a twenty-year-old, or auto mechanics to a prospective student in the country or in a town of 1,500 population.

Parents of school children as regular members of the school's clientele represent one of the most potentially significant new groups. They want to come to school. Wherever opportunities are provided, they respond. In the years to come, school enrollment figures should include not only the classifications for children and young people, but for their parents and other adults as well. The numbers and proportions of the three groups enrolling are certain to show impressive changes.

Third, we have become more and more an urban population—more students are attending city schools. War industries have encouraged the trek to large industrial centers, and apparently those centers do not yet see any diminution in the school population. Therefore large cities get larger; soon they experience a housing shortage, and push their movable population out farther and farther into surrounding residential areas. This means new schools to be built—opportunities to build new communities and community institutions. As for rural areas, the trend to fewer and larger farms continues, with consequent reduction in and diffusion of the rural school population. To provide the kinds of opportunities children and youth need under such circumstances poses the hardest of our educational problems.

In fact, this problem sounds through all the current comment about revitalizing and rebuilding our American educational structure so that it will be equal to the immense tasks the public sees for it. To provide for each child, youth and adult those educational experiences which are built around his life needs and creative interests—that is the responsibility schools have; it is their challenge to provide new or better services, and to make whatever changes in structure are needed to facilitate them.

What About School "Structure?"

Given more persons to serve, some relatively new groups to serve, and new educational services to provide, schools need to take a critical look at their machinery to see whether it is adequate to the job. This is where "structure" comes in. Structure only means the *parts* of something and how they are put together. Our educational structure has been a long time a-building, and it is quite possible that its parts may not be good enough for the job, or that they may be squeaky in some of the joints.

For example, just what does that part of the school system called "the elementary school" include? If you were explaining it to a visitor you would have to say something like this: In most communities the elementary school begins with first grade and ends with eighth grade; however, in many communities, mostly the larger cities, there is a pre-first grade or sometimes two grades or classes for children before they go to first grade. Also in many communities—in fact, in *most* large cities, a large proportion of the elementary schools end with sixth grade. In some whole states, especially in the South, the seventh is the last grade. But in other communities the elementary school includes also ninth grade.

A definition of "the high school" would show similar variations. Does it include grades seven to twelve, nine to twelve, seven to fourteen, nine to fourteen, or any one of many other grade combinations, as shown by the Office of Education's Biennial Survey? Now we really ought to be able to do better than this. Such lack of uniformity indicates a basic indecision as to what the school's clientele is, what types of educational programs the school should provide, and what sort or sorts of organization will best facilitate them. These problems are difficult enough in the cities where population is concentrated; they have seemed almost insurmountable in sparsely settled areas, where a school district may have one and only one pupil of each age potentially served by the school. This means that reorganization of school structure must start farther back than the individual school building, school system, or school district. It means, all over the country, laying out the school district boundaries again, with the purpose in mind that each district—whether made up of the homes of rural and village people, or comprising a town or city and its surrounding area—shall be able to provide all but the advanced professional and technical educational needs of its children, youth, and adults. When that is done, there will not be 110,000 school districts, some of them with fewer than five children. More likely the number of districts will be fewer than ten thousand.

As for changes in internal school organization, there are straws in the wind, but it must be admitted that they strike cross-currents now and then. For generations the layman's idea has been that children start to school in first grade. Psychologically, or idealistically, kindergartens were accepted. Actually they have never been available for more than one of every five of the five-year-olds.

The recent experience elementary schools have had in operating emergency educational programs for five-, four-, and even three-year-olds has given a great impetus to the movement for educational services for young children. Never was public support so strong and so vocal. On no innovation in school services has there been more widespread, intelligent understanding and acceptance by parents. It will be a test of the initiative, inventiveness, and social consciousness of elementary school principals, supervisors, and school superintendents to adopt and adjust this relatively new service, and thus make nursery schools and kindergartens the normally expected beginning step of the school system. Already in many places a sort of pattern seems to be emerging for a primary unit for all ages and groups of children up to and including the seven- or eight-year-olds, normally the third grade.

At the upper end of the elementary schools the cross-currents make conclusions difficult. The junior high school form of organization, usually combining the upper two grades of the elementary school and the lower one of the high school into a new unit, came about because of a number of influences. One of these was the rapid growth of elementary school enrollments from 1900 to 1930 and the consequent need for more school accommodations. This coincided with the more careful analysis then going on of the educational needs of adolescent boys and girls, which resulted in greater emphasis on exploratory programs in science, industrial arts, social studies, and the language arts. In some already overcrowded elementary schools it seemed impossible to provide this enriched program, and a new school unit, the junior high school, was organized. When elementary school enrollments declined during the 30's and elementary school buildings again had

space, numbers of communities returned their seventh and eighth grade groups to the elementary school organization, nevertheless keeping the enriched programs for groups which had already been devised.

Now, with the prospect of at least fifteen years of increased enrollments in elementary schools, pressures are again developing for more junior high schools. One state department official, commenting on the unprecedented enrollment in kindergarten-primary grades, wrote as follows: "Secondary schools should cooperate with elementary schools in working out potential organizational improvements. For example, the logical thing to do in some (state) situations is for the high school to undertake the responsibility for junior high school education within its boundaries."

Not everyone will agree with this conclusion. Some communities will meet the need for more space, more laboratories and work rooms, community auditoriums and meeting rooms, game rooms and playgrounds, community health facilities and libraries, by providing new community school buildings and grounds to house the educational services for all children and youth, at least through the thirteenth or fourteenth year, and their parents.

A somewhat different solution is now being made to the problem in Pasadena where neighborhood schools will house parent and preschool groups and five-, six-, and seven-year-old groups. Specifications for these buildings call for architecture of a scale and type that will fit into a residential district, will not be suggestive of an institution, and that will be in keeping with the home atmosphere appropriate for children of these ages. These neighborhood schools will in each case be part of the elementary school unit which serves the older children too for the district; the buildings will be movable, so that they can go where the children are. With all

their modern air, they dramatize the affection in which the little red schoolhouse has always been held in the hearts of the American people—they keep the children close to home literally and psychologically; they make it easy for parents to drop in, to share in what is going on; they introduce children to group organization slowly; they are small enough and intimate enough so that "the teacher" can know every child and his parents. If we have been too much pleased with large, efficient, standardized buildings and too little conscious of the rigidity they can impose on school programs, this original, courageous break with tradition will encourage us to reappraise school forms and structure in the light of children's needs and their parents' hopes for them.

What About Time Schedules?

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 5 \times 5 \times 4 \times 9 & = & 900 \\ 365 \times 24 & = & 8,760 \end{array}$$

Class organization and building arrangements are not the only structural aspects of the school which are showing cracks. Changes are coming about in the matter of school time, too.

Here are some questions to ask your friends:

Why does school start in September and close in June? Can't children learn during June, July and August?

Are January and February good months to go to school in your part of the country? Would a longer winter vacation be a good thing for children?

Are there activities such as planting or harvesting going on in your community which children would profit from sharing?

Why isn't there school on Saturday?

The figures just above show the number of hours there are in a year, and for how many of them, on the average, children are at school. Not a big proportion, is it? The school day used to be much longer, sometimes from seven in the morning till five at night. In those days children went

to school on Saturday, and there were summer and winter terms. Fall, winter, and spring terms came later. How we came to have a five-hour, five-day week and a nine-months year is a long story and the reasons do not always lie in the convenience or the good of the children. Lack of teachers, work to be done at home, the teachers' convenience, and the cost have all had their influence. It would be interesting to see what a community would do—say in the country, or a small town, or a large city—if it started anew, and planned the school schedule for a year which would be best for the children and youth involved.

But changes are coming fast. Many forward-looking school systems regularly provide recreation programs, both for elementary school children and older youth on Saturdays and during the summer months. Believing that such activities as arts and crafts, dramatics, games and sports, choral singing, reading, and excursions are truly educational, school boards are providing such opportunities to round out children's education and to help them use constructively those hours which for many children are not otherwise adequately planned. Madison, Wisconsin, reports that more than 2,300 children "go to school on Saturdays." Wilmington, Delaware, holds a "summer camp" at its Elbert School, and children spend a happy, profitable summer there. Rochester, New York, providing a recreation program in nineteen elementary schools, enrolled more than 1,300 children, averaging thirty-five children in each center each week.

Dozens of other illustrations could be cited, for during the war, with the increased need for Saturday and summertime supervision of children whose mothers were employed, the number of communities providing extended school services zoomed to more than eight hundred.

As elementary schools continue to gather experience in planning such programs of fun and achievement for children, there probably will come about less differentiation between *in-school* and *extended school* activities. There is little reason for arts and crafts at ten o'clock to differ from arts and crafts on Saturday at two o'clock. Somehow we will learn how to plan more generous, more suitable, more varied programs for children and youth of all ages, and fit them into the daytime hours most appropriate. This will become the new "school time."

A New Concept of School

Such a full round of activities as this cannot be confined within four walls, nor even to the encircling playground. It calls for trips to the woods and farms and factories; it will require observation posts beside the lake or stream and in the woods; camps for overnight, week-end or longer

outdoor living; reference rooms or shelves in the public library; a museum and an aquarium; shops and school gardens, for older children even farms and dairies and canneries. In other words, our concept of a school as a *building* will gradually give way to a school as an organization which operates in many ways, in many places, for many learning experiences.

All of these changes in traditional school structure are now under way—here and there, in large schools and small ones. Altogether they point to an emerging elementary school which serves both the children from three on up to adolescence and their parents; which provides for them a rich educational experience suited to their needs, their interests, and their responsibilities as citizens; and which makes the time and the place of learning fit the best interests of the students. Then education will be not a destination, but a journey, with teachers and learners always enroute.

The A.C.E. Annual Meeting

THE A.C.E. EXECUTIVE BOARD, at its meeting in Washington, November 23-25, made plans for a restricted 1946 Annual Meeting of the Association for Childhood Education. After weighing carefully information gathered by headquarters office on space and dates available in centrally located cities, the decision was made to hold a meeting in Cincinnati, Ohio, April 8-10, limited to approximately eight hundred people.

The registration fee will be \$5, payable between the dates of February 10 and March 10, 1945, to A.C.E. Headquarters in Washington.

Those eligible to attend are:

Voting members

Life members of the international Association

Chairmen and members of international A.C.E. committees

Delegates of A.C.E. branches—from state associations one delegate; from local branches one delegate at large and one for each twenty-five members, to a maximum of twenty delegates

Non-voting members

Contributing members of the international Association

Priority in attendance will be given to voting members. At the close of registration, March 10, the registrations of contributing members will be accepted in the order of their receipt until the total that can be accommodated has been reached. Any remaining registrations will be returned.

If you are eligible to attend the 1946 Annual Meeting you will receive a registration blank by direct mail. (Branch presidents will receive blanks for delegates.) Please *do not* send your registration fee until you receive this blank.

School Finance as an Area of Policy

How public education in America is financed: what some of the major inadequacies and inequities are in the present financing of the schools; the direction in which lies the promise for a more adequate, equitable and adaptive financial support of education in these days are discussed by Mr. Simpson, associate professor of education, Harvard Graduate School of Education. He cites in illustration what one state has done to improve its educational program and to provide the means for financing it. First the program, then the means for attaining it are basic to good policy-making for public education today.

THE FINANCING OF PUBLIC EDUCATION in America is a subject which is as constantly before us as is the very fact of the school itself. Wherever people are concerned with schools—and this is wherever children are—there are two broad-area questions that have to be considered continuously. These questions, of course, become most real when they are focused upon any one of the thousands of local school systems throughout the country. For example, a year ago we were leading a group of eighty or more teachers and lay citizens of Weston, Massachusetts, in a full-fledged participatory survey of their own school system. These people worked in committees week after week for a year; the first half year with the first of the two questions, and then through re-constituted committees for the second half year on the second of the two questions which were substantially these:

First, what educational program—in scope, substance, organization and method—represents best educational policy in these days for this town?

Second, what are the conditions which need to be established in order to make possible the attainment of this educational program in this town?

The first question is the one of first importance and it should receive primary consideration. The second question, however, is of vast importance and upon its answer, in its various elements, hinges the possibility of attaining the program hoped for. Among the outstanding elements in the second question are these: If this be the educational program that we need, is our present school district structure adequate and, if not, what should it be? What kind of professional personnel will be needed? What kind of a school plant will be needed and how must it be equipped? What salary schedule will be essential?

And these lead finally to a series of questions in the area of finance. To what extent must financing be supplied if the desired program is to be realized? How adequate or inadequate is existing financial support of schools? How broad is the base of existing school support? Does the local property tax carry most of the load? To what extent do non-local levels of government help in supporting the educational program, for example, the state and the national government? Can the truly needed educational program possibly be financed through the local fisc alone? Does the local economy really have in it enough of potential financing power, even if it could be tapped? Or, would the cost of the needed program so strain the local economy, if that were relied upon exclusively or indeed heavily, as to drive it out or begin to confiscate it? If the local economy cannot stand the strain of the cost of the needed program, to what aus-

pices do we turn? To the state? To the nation? And so on the questions go, not only in one school community but in all, and in differing degrees of criticalness.

Financing education is a part of the whole strategy of a strong and adaptable educational program. It is a very critical part, but it is not the basic objective. The real thing is the program of education, the educational policy based upon the needs of children, youth and adults. Finance is *means*; it is not the primary thing sought. If the program sense of the profession and of the people to whom the schools belong is really strong, one or both of two things happen in the financing of schools. The people strain themselves hard at the local level in the support of schools. The people seek a broadening of the base of school support so that the financing comes to rest on broad and flexible tax bases and upon the resources of the whole state and the nation. In the last analysis the degree of the financial support of education depends upon our conceptual design of educational need. We never want to lose sight of this. At the same time, we must come to know and to understand the great importance of the structure of school finance systems, the limitations of our past ways of financing schools, and the techniques that are available to us, if we will but try them, in creating a resiliency and an adequacy of educational support.

Financial support of schools is inadequate at all times. We are prone to think so even on the basis of a somewhat traditional and static concept of educational need. If this be true, how much greater the lag of support behind the true educational need of changing days like these—behind the program which responds to the complex external conditions of education that now surround us in 1945.

The real seriousness of financial support comes upon us in hard times, economically speaking. Even though financial support

may not be what is really needed in good times, it is admittedly much more critical in bad times. Furthermore, the situation in bad times is compounded because it is then that more and more youth and adults are knocking at the door of the educational program due to the factor of unemployment. This was exactly what happened during the great depression of the 30's. This is what we have to think about, if we are realistic, as we view the future.

How Public Education in America is Financed

What are the common ways in which public education in America is financed? First, public schools are tax supported schools. Public education is a cooperatively purchased service through the medium of taxation. Second, public education is a governmental function. Hence, it gets its support from one or another governmental source—the local, the state, and the national. Third, the largest part of the support of American schools comes from the local government and, by the same token, from the local property tax which is the local tax base. On the average approximately two-thirds of the public school support is purely local.

State governments vary greatly in the degree to which they contribute to the support of schools—from approximately two per cent to over ninety per cent of the current school cost. In 1942 eleven states provided more than half of the cost of their schools, but twenty-one provided less than one-quarter of the cost. The trend is definitely, though very slowly, toward more and more reliance upon state aid for schools. Relatively little in sum total comes from the federal government, as yet, in spite of lively interest in and great need for central government aid.

In substance the ways of support are at present simple: local property taxes for the most part; about a third from the

state through the mechanism of grants in aid; most of the grants are financed through statewide taxation; there is great variation from state to state; there is very little federal aid. Education is still very much a local matter in its financing. In some states one would almost think a fence were built around each local unit.

Major Inadequacies and Inequities

What are some of the major inadequacies and inequities in the present financing of schools? These also vary greatly from state to state. To understand the situation well one has to know each state. One of the difficulties in extending popular understanding has been the absence of current data in meaningful form. To supply this need, to establish a benchmark of the support of education as of 1940, and to point the way toward the needed type of current information, the American Council on Education through its Committee on Government and Educational Finance encouraged and sponsored with the help of the United States Office of Education and other organizations an exhaustive study of the status of school support.¹ Teachers and laymen who wish to know the actual situation concerning the support of schools in the American states as of the last pre-war year certainly should study this report.

This study showed a range of school support varying in local school systems in the United States from \$100 a classroom to \$6,000 a classroom. The median classroom unit support for the country fell between \$1,600 and \$1,700. Nine million children were in classrooms supported at a level below the country's median. The ranges of school support by statewide school systems were from a low of \$400-\$499 in Mississippi to a high of \$4,100-\$4,199 in New York.

Obviously, then, here is inequity and inequality in support. Nor can this situa-

tion be materially eased by any amount of allowance for the effect of high-level-economic-areas upon cost or by claims of wasteful expenditure, especially in the light of many significant studies indicating the going-togetherness of high support and effective school programs. It should be noted also that within states the variation from district to district in the amount of school support behind classroom units often approximates the range disclosed as among whole states.

In 1930 public educational expenditures in the United States as a whole amounted to \$2,466 million. In 1942 they stood at \$2,322 million, not having returned from the depression lows even then. In the same years the percentages of total state and local expenditures for education were 28 per cent and 26.3 per cent. In connection with these figures it is important to note the estimates that have been made of the cost of public education in the post-war period. These estimates are in terms of expanding programs and groups to be served. The National Education Association has made an estimate of \$4,592,000,000 and the National Resources Planning Board one of \$6,100,000,000 in terms of 1940 purchasing power. In the face of such estimates, based upon what seem to be reasonably cautious studies, it seems clearly indicated that there is tremendous inadequacy in current school support. And we have to remember that we have piling up on us a great accumulation of unattended-to school plant needs.

With all the limitations of too brief treatment, we must say that public school support is grossly both inadequate and inequitably apportioned. Furthermore, these inadequacies and inequities go back to our ways of supporting public schools.

¹ "An Inventory of Public School Expenditures in the United States." A Report of the Cooperative Study of Public School Expenditures. By John R. Norton and Eugene S. Lawler. Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1944. Mimeographed, two volumes, pp. 409.

These in turn ignore the prime fact that children and youth, on the one hand, and the financial ability to support schools, on the other hand, do not "just naturally" come together in equivalent proportions in local school systems. This is a very simple but seemingly difficult thing for both teachers and layman to see. It is equally important that this fact, as well as many others in the field of educational finance, is seen and understood by both professional and lay groups through the processes of participation in the development of public policy in education.

Direction of Support for Education

In what direction of effort lies our promise for a more adequate, equitable, and adaptive financial support of education in these days? If we were to answer this question in terms of the substance we would set such directions as these:

Abandon such heavy reliance upon the local tax base. This is generally good advice in most states. Remember that education, though locally operated, is of state and national concern and that our population is very mobile.

Move to greater reliance upon state financial aids for a variety of reasons such as to help to equalize educational opportunity, to provide a more stable and adequate support through broader tax foundation, and to create or preserve that degree of local tax leeway essential to lending substance to educational purposing where schools are.

Rely reasonably upon the local tax base; do not give up the right to back local educational purposing with financial means; and do not forswear the denial of freedom of local taxation for schools through the devices and mechanisms of tax limitations.

Move also toward balanced reliance upon general federal aid to the states, knowing that the argument for federal financing in aid of state school systems is also equally good, and for the same basic reasons that apply to state aid to local school districts.

These directions that educational financing will have to take are over-simplified here. In fact they involve many problems

including those of technical procedures that have to be worked at in the process of developing school finance policy. Someone has said that nothing ever again will be simple. But this should not be our despair. We should not expect to proceed without somewhat complex refinements in dealing with the critical problem of education and its support in a complex and changing day and age. And above all, we must place our stock in the clarification of public policy for the educational program itself. Do we want the school program well supported financially? *What program?* The thing to be supported is the program. The clearer our design for this the surer our finding the ways of financial support.

What One State Has Done

Yet it is not at the point of the substance of finance—at the points previously mentioned—important as these are, that we must learn to apply our efforts. I would not for a minute minimize the suggestions previously enumerated but I would certainly want to emphasize the great importance of broad and continuous participation on the part of people and agencies working at the development of public policy for both education and its support. In this, too, it is of immense importance to work through the state and national governments. The problems of educational finance, it may be taken as a truism, will never be solved by attack at the local government alone. Nor will they ever be solved short of the broadened base of continued professional and lay participation. To elaborate this point let us look at a particular state, not to emphasize that state, but rather to improve our focus upon the thing emphasized.

It was my privilege for twelve years to serve the State of New York as educational finance officer. Most of these were the depression years. I had some experi-

ence with the phenomenon of the depression as related to educational support. The depression, as has been noted earlier, is an important period for consideration because it is in such a period that the great test comes in financing education. During the lush period of the 20's school programs had been greatly, and in general wisely, extended; but expansion was then no question, nor was there any test. Then came the crash and for most of a decade the problem was to hold together the structure of school support. It seems safe to say that this was accomplished much more successfully in New York than in most sections of the country. It is worth our time to look into the reasons. I do not have statistical proof nor is "proving" what I am trying to do. On the contrary, I am saying that certain factors that were present in the New York situation seem to me to have had much to do with the resiliency and adaptability of school support in that state during the depression. I shall merely state these, not argue them.

High in the list was the development of New York's system of state aid for schools through which the state paid approximately one-third of the current cost of the schools. Closely related to this was the fact that much real relief was lifted from the tax on local property on which the load of school support would otherwise have lain. The state had developed a modern, comprehensive, well-balanced, and flexible system of state taxation, including a progressive income tax. Likewise the state had given up the property tax as a basis of state government support. The system of state aid for schools was founded on the principle of equalization, wherein the state contribution to the support of an established foundation school program was in inverse proportion to the financial ability of the local districts to support the program. The state aid system was also

so designed as to give a considerable measure of local tax leeway in the support of schools.

The basic elements in the New York system were established as state policy during a period of "good times" and before the onset of the depression. In other words, New York had gotten ready. I am not saying that New York consciously set out to get ready for a depression. She was really meeting the pressures and the problems of the times, and on time. But in effect she was "getting ready" with a system of state school support which was to be good in bad times, because it was resilient, equalizing, and adaptive, and because it broadened the base of support both taxwise and governmentally. New York had thus taken two very essential steps toward adequate school program support and had done so during relative good times, and at a time when she could plan without the frenzy and despair which accompany bad times.

There were also several other factors present in the New York planning. One was the development beginning in 1914, but greatly advanced by and after the Rural School Survey of the early 20's, of a pattern of school district organization for non-urban areas which added vastly to the possibility for many areas in the state to have a strong educational program. I refer to the central rural school district. Here was planning in the field of the governmental structure of education which was essentially complementary to the planning in the field of finance.

Another area illustrative of the forehandedness of New York in dealing with the support of the educational program is one which is not commonly thought of, yet which is perhaps the most fundamental of all. It is a well-established fact that no other state has provided for or had provided for it such a series of extensive and

intensive studies of education from the angle of statewide policy. While by "education" I mean the whole field of education, I am particularly sure that my generalization holds for the special field of educational finance. With the Educational Finance Inquiry which began in 1921—the first and major volume of which was "The Financing of Education in the State of New York"—there was set in motion a continuous succession of commission, committee, associational or individual studies which have continued to this day. Most of these studies related heavily to the financing of education, although some like the Regents' Inquiry emphasized more particularly the educational program.

No purpose is to be achieved here by detailing or even enumerating these many studies and projects in participation. The thing that I do wish to emphasize is that for a quarter-century there has been in evidence in New York State a continuous spirit of inquiry and a continued, organized group study of outstanding educational problems. Many of these projects have been official, governmental searches; others have been associational and non-governmental in source, though aimed at the solution of critical public problems in education. It would be very worthwhile to determine the number of people who have participated in these searches and researches in one way or another. The number would certainly be large.

What has been the significance of all of this? The state, its people, its executives, its legislators, its education department, its associations, its school people have been engaged in the development of public

policy in education. They have been answering the basic questions raised earlier in this paper. They have been concerned with educational program, yes, but at the same time with its essential conditions, and particularly so with the financial conditions necessary to the type of school policy needed. This has been a great search that has kept New York alive and vigorous.

But more important has been what the search has amounted to, in reality, in terms of method. *What has been going on has been broad participation in the development of public policy.* It was not necessarily planned as the participatory process, but this is what it has been. And it has been both professional and lay participation. There has been a happy combination of the broadened base of popular participation in policy development and of the use of expert services; of leadership springing from many sources and of broad popular contribution; of the developmental and of the enactment phases of the policy process; of the state and of the local governments; of general government and of educational government. Yet, withal, the essential thing has been the degree of participation which somehow has been activated. This makes a state vigorous, alert, adaptive and keeps it so.

To a degree these things have been going on in other states, but I think not with the persistency and breadth of participation that has characterized New York. But to whatever degree, it is good. For this is the way and the challenge to an adequate, equitable and adaptable financing of the educational program.

In-service Teacher Education

---Implications for Administration and Support

Recent experiences of the Commission on Teacher Education show the need for changes in the education of teachers if the growth of children is to be guided effectively. Mr. Bigelow, professor of education at Teachers College, Columbia University, and former director of the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education, reports what these experiences reveal and points out their implications for school administration and financial support.

GUIDING THE GROWTH OF CHILDREN is not a simple job. For it to be well done certain things are requisite. A teacher must know the principles of human growth and development. He must know how to analyze the cases of particular children and how to determine teaching procedures suited to them. He must have working conditions conducive to the exercise of his best powers. And he must be increasing those powers—must himself be growing continually on the job.

All these requirements have implications for teacher education, both at the preparatory stage and even more importantly after the teacher has gone to work. The colleges and universities should provide a basic understanding of how children grow and develop. They should give prospective teachers plentiful opportunities for the direct study of real boys and girls. They should instill in them determination to

make the most effective use possible of the powers they have attained, and to continue throughout their teaching careers to enlarge their skills and knowledge and insight.

The colleges and universities are today increasingly sensitive to such tasks. Specifically they are showing a mounting determination to ensure that the teachers they graduate have a superior understanding of child growth and development. Nevertheless it must be recognized that much remains to be accomplished. The study of children as whole beings and in the simultaneous lights of various sciences—the biological, the psychological, the sociological—has only recently made notable strides. It is only beginning to have the desired effect on college curricula.

Consequently if today's children are to benefit from our newer understandings, in-service study is called for. If such study is to take place and be effective, that is, lead to better guidance of the growth of children, appropriate encouragement must be provided by school administrators. Teachers on the job must be helped to learn more about the principles of human growth and development. They must be helped to deepen and extend their insights through the close consideration of the cases of typical boys and girls. They must be provided with working conditions conducive to professional enthusiasm and to experimental modifications of practice when suggested by new understanding.

Editor's Note: If you would like a reprint of this article to be mailed to a key administrator in your school system address a request, giving the person's name and address, to the Association for Childhood Education, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest, Washington 6, D. C., and the reprint will be mailed free of charge.

What Recent Experiences Reveal

The experience of the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education throws a good deal of light on these matters. It shows that teachers in service are eager and able to engage in very effective projects of child study and to gain very practical benefits therefrom.¹ It also shows how activities of this sort can be promoted through arrangements developed by and largely within school systems.² And it clearly demonstrates the need for a substantial provision, in school system budgets, of funds for the support of such activities.

The study of children by teachers in school systems that were participants in the Commission's cooperative program was usually part of a general pattern of in-service activities designed to facilitate professional growth. Characteristic of such a pattern were: strong administrative support; a central planning committee; development of study groups in response to teacher interest and demand; emphasis on voluntary participation and democratic procedures in such groups; provision of consultant aid both from within and from without the system; and help to selected staff members whose attendance at summer workshops or such institutions as the Commission's collaboration center in child development could be expected to increase local leadership resources. In a number of cases local summer workshops or two-week work conferences prior to the opening of school were added features.

Recognition by administrative officers of the importance of promoting a local program of in-service education was a first requirement. Without such recognition and the support that followed not much could be accomplished. Essential was an understanding that improvement of the work of the schools required group endeavor, that without such endeavor

gains already made could not be maintained. This carried two implications: first, that it was not enough to rely on the separate efforts of individual teachers to increase their competence; and second, that maximum participation in local planning as well as doing should be sought.

The setting up of a central planning committee was an obvious first step in getting a local in-service education program under way. Such committees were at first highly representative of all types of educational worker in the system, as well as large in membership and planned so as to provide for fairly rapid rotation. With experience, however, it came to be thought that these characteristics were less important—indeed, less desirable—than had originally been supposed. The main functions of planning committees turned out to be the stimulation, support, and coordination of working study groups. This meant a decentralization of effort that of itself guaranteed democratic control. It also meant that the committees needed members whose contacts in the system were broad and who were familiar with the various aspects of the program of in-service education.

As has been implied, it was the study groups that proved to be the key element in any in-service program. These lent themselves to formation in response to the widest variety of needs felt by the teachers. They proved equally adaptable to varying schemes of membership: sometimes teachers of a given grade level or subject found it profitable to work together; sometimes the teachers from a particular building formed a group; sometimes the subject of interest resulted in the organization of a more heterogeneous

¹ See *Helping Teachers Understand Children*, a report prepared for the Commission on Teacher Education by the staff of the Division on Child Development and Teacher Personnel, Washington 6, D. C.; American Council on Education, 1945.
² *Loc. cit.* See also Prall, C. E., and Cushman, C. L. *Teacher Education in Service*. Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1944.

body. In every case it proved advantageous to rely on voluntary participation.

The members of the Commission staff who assessed the experiences of cooperating school systems with study groups concluded "that, given proper conditions, teachers will readily join together in an effort to do better what they conceive to be their jobs; that when people go to work on jobs that to them seem important, personal growth and program improvement become closely related; and that given proper conditions, the teachers' conceptions of their jobs will broaden and also come to relate more closely to the needs of contemporary society."³

Five conditions favorable to voluntary enlistment were identified: (1) that the subject of study seem appropriate and important to group members; (2) that participants be in a position to make a positive contribution to the group endeavor; (3) that the group be free to modify goals and procedures in the light of experience; (4) that members work as friends and equals; and (5) that it should be relatively easy for group thinking to be converted into action.⁴ Conditions conducive to moving on to ever more significant tasks were declared to be first, a rich association between the teachers and the youth and adults of their community and second, a similar association with important ideas and ideals.⁵

Group study of child growth and development was prominent in the in-service programs with which the Commission was associated, and one of its final reports, *Helping Teachers Understand Children*, is devoted to this aspect of its experience.⁶ Methods of conducting a program of child study are fully analyzed and illustrated in this volume. The recommended approach is through a combination of direct and intensive attention to the cases of a few particular children with parallel study of

generalizations respecting child growth and development synthesized from the findings of the relevant biological, psychological, and sociological sciences. Such generalizations may eventually provide a conceptual framework to serve as a basis for organizing information about a particular child and as a check on the scope and consistency of a teacher's interpretation of his case.

The importance of competent local leadership for child study groups and of the periodical services to them of special consultants from outside the school system, has been clearly demonstrated. Supervisors, principals, or classroom teachers with appropriate interests and background can be found or developed and enabled to function as guides and resource persons. But if the newer insights respecting child growth and development are to be effectively tapped frequent access must be had to the help that can be provided by experts of the sort ordinarily to be found only on college and university faculties. Such consultants can give the greatest aid under an arrangement whereby they spend as much as a week at a time in a given school system, return at regular intervals, and are constantly accessible through correspondence.

Even when teachers are most enthusiastic and time pressures upon them least harassing, what they can accomplish in study group meetings scattered throughout the regular school year has certain limitations. For this reason some school systems have established local summer workshops, or two-week work conferences just before school opens, at which intensive child study has been featured. Special consultants, preferably including those em-

³ Prall and Cushman, *op. cit.* pp. 441-2.

⁴ *Ibid.* pp. 442-6.

⁵ *Ibid.* pp. 446-53.

⁶ Editor's Note: "Improving Anecdotes of Behavior" on pages 232-239 of this issue of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION is a chapter from the report cited here.

ployed throughout the year, have given full time to such enterprises. The results have been eminently satisfying.

Both as an alternative and especially as a complement to the arrangements just mentioned certain representatives of school systems where child study was being emphasized have been encouraged and assisted to go to university centers for special help. Summer workshops emphasizing child growth and development have been particularly attractive to such persons. Some have been able to give as much as a full year to work at the collaboration center originally set up by the Commission and now carried on by the University of Chicago. Development of local leadership resources and special help with group-determined problems have been particular aims of arrangements of these sorts. In other words the individuals undergoing the experiences have done so with the encouragement of their local associates and with the expectation that as a result they would be able to make increased contributions to local group study.

It will have been noted how the various arrangements hitherto described fit together to constitute an integrated pattern. Not all of the parts need be present for progress to be made, but when they are the support they provide for each other increases the likelihood that progress will be substantial and rapid. The accomplishment demonstrated through the report of the Commission's experience⁷ has already spurred a number of school systems to set up programs including study groups, consultant services, work conferences, and use of workshop and other university facilities.

Implications for Administration and Financial Support

What are the implications of such developments for personnel administration

and budgetary arrangements? This question is bound to have arisen in the thoughtful reader's mind and calls for concluding consideration. It is evident that if in-service programs of teacher education, including child study, are to succeed teachers must be persuaded to participate in them. The Commission's experience demonstrated that participation will voluntarily take place under the conditions already noted. Those conditions imply that the teachers are trusted and respected, that they are encouraged to contribute to a group process—not asked merely to listen, accept, and act as instructed. They further imply a favorable administrative attitude toward experimentation and a recognition of individual differences among teachers that check impulses to press for mechanical uniformity of practice. If teachers are to guide the growth of children wisely they must respect them as individuals, working with them in terms of their varying patterns of abilities and of developing purposes, understandings, and skills. They are most likely to do so if they themselves are similarly dealt with.

When they are thus respected teachers respect themselves, their potentialities, and their profession. The impulse to do the job better is strengthened. And the problem of finding time to participate in group efforts to improve services to children—and incidentally for self-improvement—proves capable of fairly ready solution. The problem of finding the money needed to support such endeavors, however, is not one that can be chiefly solved by the teachers themselves.

The in-service education of teachers has traditionally been thought of as an individual affair. Particular teachers, lacking a bachelor's or master's degree, were encouraged to "bring themselves up to standard" via the summer session or some

⁷ *Helping Teachers Understand Children.*

other route. Or, if the degree of "preparation" could not be questioned, periodical demonstration of "alertness" was asked for. Response might be required, or it might at least be stimulated by the linking of promotion and salary-increase possibilities to evidence of continued study. In any case the appeal was individualistic. Under such circumstances it seemed evidently appropriate that the costs of continued education should be borne by each particular teacher involved.

But such programs of in-service education as have been dealt with here are institutional in character: they attract individual teachers not as such but as members of a school system team; they call for participation by those with the best prior education as well as by those with the least. Moreover their appeal bears no relation to the degree in which various teachers feel able to make a financial investment in them. And finally any effort to obtain such investment by promise of consequent salary benefits would be inconsistent with the basic aim of general participation.

It follows that the cost of such programs must be considered as fundamentally constituting a proper and necessary charge against school system budgets. And why should they not be? The cost of supervision has long been so accepted, and good supervision is certainly a species of in-service education. Indeed good supervision is increasingly seen as providing leadership in voluntary group study. In any case the improvement of school programs in a period when teachers are averaging extended years of service, when social changes are steadily challenging education, and when significant new knowledge relating to the teaching task is rapidly emerging, clearly requires increased budgetary provisions for the support of such activities as have herein been considered.

For what purposes may such funds de-

sirably be employed? First to supply adequate leadership and other resources for study groups. This may imply an increase in central-office services but is at least as likely to suggest providing relief for classroom teachers in order that they may for a time carry special responsibilities. While it is by no means thought that study groups should invariably meet only on "school time" this may sometimes be desirable and call for special arrangements. Suitable books, films, and other study materials should certainly be made available, as well as adequate clerical facilities. Provision for obtaining sufficient help from first-rate outside consultants is essential.

The value of local summer workshops—annually in large school systems, less frequently in others—and of shorter work-conferences has been demonstrated to such a degree as fully to justify their support out of system funds. Teachers should not be expected to contribute except possibly when receiving personal academic credit. The chief cost in the case of such affairs will be for the services of suitable consultants. A further expense that may well be budgeted is that of helping selected teachers and other staff members to undertake intensive summer-session or even term-time study designed to enable them to increase their contributions to the group endeavors being carried forward locally.

That such proposals are not impractical is proved by the fact that they describe what is already being done in at least a few school systems. For example, two cities of from fifty to one hundred thousand population spring to mind in each of which ten thousand dollars is now being appropriated annually for the support of in-service programs of child study. In a much larger city a slightly larger appropriation is being used in a program with a good many more facets. The superintendent in this city is

(Continued on Page 251)

Improving Anecdotes of Behavior

What a group of teachers engaged in a cooperative study of child growth and development learned about describing the behavior of children is reported by the staff of the Division on Child Development and Teacher Personnel of the Commission on Teacher Education, American Council on Education.

THE TEACHERS OF ONE SCHOOL SYSTEM have been engaged for more than four years in a cooperative study of child growth and development.¹ Moving forward chiefly under their own steam and with local leadership, these teachers have pioneered in the establishment of tangible ways and means for improving their understanding of children, and have found both the study and the accomplishments therefrom to be rather thrilling experiences. This article sets forth some of the things they learned about describing the behavior of children.

As the teachers of this school system began to work toward the understanding of particular children with whom they dealt, they soon discovered that there were some deeply rooted habits of their own which got in the way of achieving their goal. For example, the habit of judging pupil behavior in terms of its effects on the accomplishment of the teacher's own purposes for the child or for the group interfered with understanding a child; so did the habit of judging pupil behavior on the basis of the teacher's personal prejudices and cultural values.

These habits must be replaced by new ones. First, the teacher must think of behavior as supplying the cues to under-

standing and must learn to notice exactly what the child does and says. Then the meaning of this behavior must be sought in terms of facts about that child, brought into perspective with the aid of scientific principles. Next, the psychological and developmental principles that explain the child's behavior are to be sought and used as the basis for planning ways of helping the child to face his adjustment problems and accomplish the necessary learning. In so far as good teaching depends upon understanding children, it requires thorough habituation in these scientific procedures.

This article is concerned with only three among the many implied habit changes: (1) breaking the habit of making snap judgments about children's actions or needs on the basis of personal preoccupations, (2) establishing the habit of noticing exactly what a child does, and (3) learning to record clear descriptions of what the child did and of the situation in which he acted.

The Habit of Making Judgments with Little Supporting Evidence

Naturally, the work of the child study group was not launched by having somebody in authority tell the teachers that they did not understand children and

¹ The study was launched when the school system was one of the cooperating units in the studies of teacher education being assisted by the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education. Members of the staff of the Division on Child Development and Teacher Personnel of the Commission worked very closely with the teachers and officers of the school system throughout the period of study, and they have described the progress of the study through its first few years in a complete report which has recently been published. The present article consists of excerpts from Chapter II of that publication—*Helping Teachers Understand Children: A Report Prepared for the Commission on Teacher Education*. By the Staff of the Division on Child Development and Teacher Personnel. Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education, July 1945. Pp. 540.

therefore must change the basis upon which they judged children's behavior. Instead, a topic of lively interest and controversy among them—cumulative records—was discussed. The teachers said that the cumulative records currently being kept were a big chore and of little practical help. They reported that they spent a lot of time making entries into the records but seldom were able to get anything useful out of them. The leaders hoped that the child study group might find ways of remedying this; so a section of the cumulative record of one child—the social attitudes and conduct sheet—was selected for study. A number of teachers had entered remarks about this particular boy, and the group agreed that it was a typical record, a fair sample of the records all of them had been writing.

The consultant, supplied by the Commission on Teacher Education, was asked to analyze, interpret, and criticize this record for the benefit of the group. He did this in writing, and his analysis of Ernest's record was mimeographed and distributed to all teachers in the study. Here are samples of this material:

*Teacher's
Notes*

Consultant's Comment

GRADE 2

A most peculiar child; eyes and ears bad; gets along poorly with other children.

Cannot be depended upon.

Good about bringing in materials which are needed.

Not capable of taking any responsibility.

How? What does he do that shows this? List specific cases—too general to mean anything.

Again how? What was he to do that he did not do?

What did he bring? How did he act about what he brought?

Too general; what responsibilities were tried with him? Where did he fail?

Does mean little things.

Has many fights with other children.

Below standard in all work.

Very slow in everything he does.

Not capable of doing very much.

Cannot stay at anything long.

Can be reasoned with just so far.

Hunts up trouble and often finds it.

Many times the fights he gets into are his own fault.

Class tried all year to help him. Went to council several times for further help.

What does he do?

About what were he and the others fighting?

Entirely too general.

This is an indication; it tells something about the personality that is very important to know.

Be more specific; what *did* he do?

GRADE 5

Cannot stay at what things long? There are bound to be some things on which he will concentrate. Is it the things the teacher requires of him which he will not do? Perhaps he is not interested. Specify those things which he will not conclude.

This shows a bit more. We again know he isn't all *bad*. There are some children who can never be reasoned with.

This tells a bit more but not enough. List what trouble he has started. This may be a vicious circle. He is teased; he picks on children. Again they tease and pick back.

These may date back to difficulties between Ernest and other children. Poor attitudes could cause this.

A visit to council might work if there is on the part of the group a sincere attitude toward Ernest and a feeling that they will not tease him. Rather they will bear with him as he tries to overcome his wrong habits. Preaching at Ernest after

having teased him will not help a bit and it may do a great deal of damage.

Let Ernest state his side, other children theirs. Teachers should be professional and listen without taking sides. If, when all the facts come out, it really seems that the fault is with Ernest and the group sincerely feels so without prejudice, then it may be a good thing to let Ernest feel the group's disapproval. A case at times may be used to help the group see right and wrong, but we must not sacrifice the boy in the aim to educate the group. It would depend a great deal on what the teacher felt would happen to him and to them, whether the facts in the case should be pooled to decide what is the right thing to do.

Had to be punished and it helped him. Tried harder to behave.

How did the punishment help him? Teacher should try to answer that. Did it help Ernest to conform to the wishes of the teacher, or did it help him to have a better attitude toward behavior and against fights? Teacher may succeed in changing the outward appearances but not the inner thoughts and feelings. The trouble may be smouldering and at home or after school hours, when away from the teacher, Ernest may continue his fights. There may be a place for punishment, but it needs to be weighed carefully. Group displeasure is one punishment if it is honest—no artificial attitude just because "teacher expects us to take that attitude toward it." Later pupils may talk sympathetically to Ernest and then no good is done.

Is a pathetic person in a way.

This shows that Ernest seemed to try and although he could not get far, he is

Has questionable mentality.

Ernest was picked on many times because he did not hear well.

Ernest improved greatly when given responsibility. He was made monitor and enjoyed this.

Takes part in all kinds of activity and does fairly well.

not wholly bad. If the teacher could feel sympathy for him, there must be good there.

Teacher should not dare to make such a statement. Instead, give an intelligence test and list his IQ, also level of work and indications of reasoning ability or lack of it. Draw no generalizations.

GRADE 6

Talking about this with children helped. It shows a definite indication of trouble. This difficulty alone would make Ernest feel that others were against him. If the group responded, this shows that they have accepted him and are not against him, so that eliminates one item.

This shows again that he was accepted by the group or he would have had difficulties here. Shows teacher understanding and willingness to work with Ernest, which it takes if we want to get any kind of results.

This shows something in improvement. What might be causing this improvement? This should be considered. Is it what happens at school? Change of interests? Attitudes changing (in Ernest or in the group)? Fact that they realize his deafness and help him? Fact that he has eye glasses? Teacher becoming more patient as she watches Ernest's behavior and is beginning to get a better understanding?

The teachers in the study group were surprised by this analysis. They were struck by the fact that they had gone on year after year putting down judgments about this child with so little supporting evidence. They could see that they had

described how they themselves had reacted to the boy more often than how he had behaved. They noticed that the record seldom provided information that would indicate the child's own motives and attitudes and that it did not supply a convincing picture of how the school had helped him in the process of growing up. The teachers then began to examine the cumulative records of other children; they looked up what they individually had written about particular boys and girls. In the end they came to the conclusion that most of the statements they had made were empty and worthless generalizations.

Then began the interesting task of improvement. Each teacher selected one child—normal, well adjusted and without acute problems—and the group agreed that each teacher would undertake writing two or three anecdotes each week about each child.

This was more easily said than done. Mental habits of long standing can be changed but slowly. In spite of themselves, these teachers usually continued to write what *they* thought about the children they were observing, and how *they* felt about the actions recorded. At best, their first efforts were only generalized descriptions. More often they included interpretation and evaluation, as illustrated by the following extracts from their records:

Chester can be sweet and good but often shows temper and bad disposition. I think it may be due to feeling neglected or that he does not measure up to standards which the majority meet satisfactorily. Chester stays with the wrong crowd too much. He was involved in some trouble in which the school football was missing. Although the "case" was not solved, evidence pointed to Chester.

Woodward has told me any number of tales which we proved to be false. He took car tickets from his mother's purse, gave them away and continued to deny it when the evidence was before him. I do not know why

he does not tell the truth, but he doesn't. He does not come to school regularly. When brought to school by his mother, he waited in the hall until she left, then he too departed. One morning I saw him get off the trolley in the city before school opened. That day he spent fifty cents fee money which he had been given to bring to the teacher for school materials. He denied this act bitterly. He is not aboveboard with most that he does, gets other children into trouble—talking, playing, etc., and puts on a perfectly innocent expression. When we investigate, we find that he started the punching.

These early anecdotes are worth some analysis for the purpose of emphasizing how hard it is to break old habits and to modify established codes for judging behavior at school. In the first place, the teacher nearly always recorded how she felt about the child. Examples are:

Chester can be sweet and good but often shows temper and bad disposition.

Woodward . . . is not aboveboard with most that he does, gets other children into trouble.

These excerpts tell how the teachers reacted to those boys rather than what the boys actually did. But the teachers did not write these comments as records of how they felt about the youngsters. They thought they were depicting attributes of the children, and they and their colleagues read and re-read these statements as accurate descriptions of these boys.

The Habit of Thinking of Personality As One Dominant Trait

A second habit revealed by these anecdotes is that of thinking of children's personalities as being characterized by a single prominent trait or way of behavior. Again and again children are summed up in some one pattern of behavior, and the attempt is made to explain what they do as the expression of this single trait. Of course this habit blinds teachers to an accurate observation of the interaction between the children's needs and desires

and the pressures of concrete situations, which is the real basis of behavior. How this habit colors teachers' records is illustrated by the following excerpts:

Ned . . . can be appealed to. . . . We can forgive him easily because of his disposition and attitude . . . whatever he does he seems willing . . . to admit that he has done wrong and to show that he is sorry. . . . This is his usual attitude.

Woodward has told me any number of tales. . . . I do not know why he does not tell the truth, but he doesn't. . . . He is not aboveboard with most that he does. . . .

Of course teachers are not to be blamed for ascribing generalized traits to children, for in doing this they are merely showing the effects of folk-training. But the habit does get in the way of describing behavior objectively. It prevents the teacher from telling *what* the child actually did and often from discovering the interplay of factors that gave rise to it. It leads to gross over-simplification and superficiality in the interpretation of behavior.

The Habit of Interpreting Behavior Without Facts, Attention to Principles

A third habit commonly found among teachers starting to write anecdotes is that of making an immediate interpretation of behavior without marshalling any considerable body of facts about the child, and without figuring out the psychological principles which the facts indicate as giving a more valid hypothesis for working with that individual. Examples follow:

Chester . . . often shows temper and bad disposition. I think it may be due to feeling neglected or that he does not measure up to standards which the majority meet satisfactorily.

Jack never accomplishes anything because he does not persist long enough. . . . When I call on him for an answer to a question, I get nothing even after I have stayed with him to prepare the lesson. He knows the answer but is just plain stubborn and will not talk.

We must recognize that teachers are face to face with children constantly in active situations. They have to take hold and get results. The nature of their work and repeated pressure from parents, principals, and supervisors all influence them to make up their minds about children's behavior from the first moment of contact and thereafter to deal with the children on the basis of these interpretations. Nevertheless, it is one thing to make immediate decisions at the beginning of the school year, for the sake of effective group organization and activity, and quite another thing to continue indefinitely to accept these first hypotheses about individuals as established facts.

Initial interpretations always need revision. It is most important for teachers to develop the disposition constantly to test and clarify their hypotheses about why different children behave as they do. It is vital that they be continually on the lookout for additional facts that will add to their understanding of a child. It is important for them to learn to withhold "final" conclusions about the attitudes and motivation of individuals until they can base these judgments upon facts that give a reasonable probability of scientific validity. Especially do they need the habit of frequently rechecking their conclusions in the light of new facts.

The Types of Anecdotes Written by the Teachers

After analyzing hundreds of anecdotes written by the teachers, it was found that a distinction could be made between four types of statements found in the anecdotes. We might designate these as four types of anecdotes:

Anecdotes that evaluate or judge the behavior of the child as good or bad, desirable or undesirable, acceptable or unacceptable—evaluative statements.

Anecdotes that account for or explain the behavior of the child, usually on the basis of a single fact or thesis—interpretive statements.

Anecdotes that describe certain behavior of the child in general terms, as happening frequently or as characterizing the child—generalized descriptive statements.

Anecdotes that tell exactly what the child did or said, that describe concretely the situation in which the action or comment occurred, and that tell clearly what other persons also did or said—specific or concrete descriptive statements.

A few illustrations are in order; in the following examples, italics serve to characterize the anecdote:

An evaluative statement: Julius talked loud and much during poetry; wanted to do and say just what he wanted and *didn't consider the right working out of things*. Had to ask him to sit by me. Showed a *bad attitude* about it.

An interpretive statement: For the last week Sammy has been a perfect Wiggle Tail. He is *growing so fast he cannot be settled*. . . . Of course the inward change that is taking place *causes the restlessness*.

A generalized description: Sammy is *awfully restless* these days. He is *whispering most of the time* he is not kept busy. In the circle, *during various discussions*, even though he is interested, his *arms are moving or he is punching the one sitting next to him*. He *smiles when I speak to him*.

A specific description: The weather was so *bitterly cold* that we *did not go on the playground today*. The children played games in the room during the regular recess period. *Andrew and Larry chose sides* for a game which is *known as stealing the bacon*. I was *talking to a group of children in the front of the room while the choosing was in progress* and in a moment I heard a loud altercation. Larry said that *all the children wanted to be on Andrew's side rather than on his*. Andrew . . . remarked, "*I can't help it if they all want to be on my side.*"

Sometimes a teacher began by describing an incident, got enticed by some fact into offering an interpretation, and before she

realized it was formulating a broad evaluative generalization. This may be illustrated as follows:

King told me today that he was working hard so that he would make a good record in high school and college. Said he wished that he could play football but guessed he would not be strong enough as he could not even play with boys in the fourth grade [specific description of King's comments]. To show that he is a sport he said, "Well, I guess I won't miss any of the games even though I can't play" [interpretation of reason for comments]. He really has the spirit and will get somewhere some day with that and his good mind [evaluation, interpretation—what the teacher thinks of him].

An examination of the anecdotes actually written showed certain advantages in not limiting them entirely to specific description. Some of the generalized descriptions gave excellent pictures of children in action. Again, some of the interpretations made on the spur of the moment captured the moods of interacting children in a fashion that would have been well-nigh impossible by straightforward description. Finally, some of the departures from description obviously indicated natural attempts on the part of teachers to apply new knowledge or insight or to express new points of view.

The longer sequences of anecdotes also show that, as the study progressed, the teachers gradually increased their sympathy and their empathy with the children they were studying. These tendencies to identify with the child and to sense how he feels in a given situation are important factors in helping teachers to accept the child emotionally. We must not be very critical, then, of a teacher who "interprets" or "evaluates" a situation in the process of recording it, if this interpretation grows out of a spontaneous feeling for or with a child. The classroom cannot be a place that stirs no emotion in a teacher who is sincerely interested in the whole-

some development of the boys and girls and who is beginning to understand the full meaning of situations for individual children.

So it is natural and not amiss for teachers sometimes to break through in anecdotes with statements of how they felt about certain happenings and of how they interpreted them. The important thing is for teachers to learn to recognize what they have done. Occasional lapses into interpretation and evaluation are even to be encouraged, providing the teachers recognize that most of their anecdotes should be specific descriptions in order to assure the validity of periodic appraisals of the child's developmental tasks and progress in mastering them.

Some Excellent Anecdotes

A few examples of anecdotes considered excellent by the staff are reproduced below. They contain much specific description, the incidents are very well chosen for content, and they permit important inferences about the child's development:

While reading the *Run-away Engine*, Pressley (Grade 1) often interrupted to say that just the same things that happened to the engine had happened to his grandfather when he drove his engine. Even when the run-away engine jumped the drawbridge and the coal car fell onto a barge below, that had happened to his grandfather, too. . . . Some mules passed our window. Pressley said his grandfather has two mules, one is white and one is red. Pulled up one trouser leg before scrubbing tables—said that helped him work. . . . I saw him from a little distance going home, his trouser leg still up and his arm tucked into his shirt with the sleeve hanging empty as though he were playing "broken-arm."

Olga (age 13) came in today upset. She said, "We are having to move this week. The company officials say that we'll have to give up the house we are in since the house we live in is a house used for the assistant superintendent of the factory. Of course as long as daddy was living and was one of them we were supposed to live there, but now we can't."

During the work period Larry (age 11) came to me and as he whittled a propeller for a plane asked, "Miss S, how can you have someone have confidence in you?" I told him various ways with concrete illustrations and then asked, "Are you thinking of a friend?" "Yes'm, a boy who doesn't like me but I like him." "Is he in this grade?" "No'm. He's in another room." We had quite a little talk about the matter and he asked me if I would lend the boy money in an effort to win his approval. I advised against this and told him that there were numerous better ways of winning friendship and suggested some.

On the playground today I overheard Bessie say, "Don't you think King (age 10) is ugly?" Susan answered, "Hush, I've heard that enough." I wonder if King has overheard anything about his appearance. . . . We were having a show—King suggested that he and another boy be black-faced comedians. They put on a good show.

Sam (age 12) showed a decided preference for Dora today. Asked to help her committee put up curtains. Said that "girls hardly know how to put up curtain fixtures straight like they should be." Painted a picture with Dora. Told me that he would probably learn to paint a little better if he could paint with an artist like Dora. I wasn't so sure. He especially enjoyed our poetry appreciation period. Asked for "Sea Fever," "Moon Folly," and "Overheard on a Salt Marsh." When James asked for "Hiding," he said, "Oh, boy, stop asking for those baby poems."

These anecdotes are especially good because they describe significant happenings so well. Furthermore, they report so much in the child's own words. They tell both what was done and what was said. One can almost hear the children talking and see them in action. We consider this an important characteristic of good anecdotes. To be sure, the reports do contain here and there the writer's personal comment on the situation or interpretation of some action such as, "Olga came in today upset," or "Sam showed a decided preference for Dora." Whether such remarks are to be considered desirable or not really depends upon their soundness and validity. If the teachers' diagnoses are correct, then, com-

ing as they do at the beginning of the report, the comments direct the reader's attention to the significance of what is to follow. It is because diagnosis is seldom as relatively easy as it seems in the above instances that we warn against cultivating the habit of including too many interpretive statements.

While this is not the place to go extensively into the interpretation of case material, it is important to repeat that another reason for thinking well of these anecdotes is that they suggest many important hypotheses about the children being described.² For example, Pressley over and over again identifies himself, in fantasy, more or less directly with some dramatic incident—*his* grandfather was in a run-away engine that jumped a drawbridge, *his* grandfather has two mules, *he himself* plays "broken arm." Olga reveals that her father's death entails loss of social standing in that the family is forced to move out of the assistant superintendent's house. Larry is puzzled over the problem of winning friendships. The comments of two girls about King's personal appearance raises the question as to whether the boy is sensitive and this is answered a little later by his ingenious suggestion that he be a black-faced comedian, thus covering up his ugliness and still finding a way to play an important social role. Sam makes the characteristic attempts of an early adolescent to hide his preoccupations by explaining that girls "hardly know how to put up curtain fixtures straight" and that it would help him to paint better if he worked next to an expert. But he lets the cat out of the bag when he urges another boy to "stop asking for those baby poems."

Summary

It has been pointed out that anecdotes of behavior can be made more useful if

teachers break away from many habits of long standing, such as reacting according to the significance of the episode for the writer rather than for the child being studied, characterizing a child in terms of only a single personality trait, and tending to make snap judgments and immediate interpretations on inadequate evidence.

An analysis of the statements written about children by members of the child study groups over a period of more than two years showed that most of them could be classified according to the following scheme: evaluative statements, interpretive statements, generalized descriptions, and specific or concrete descriptions. Of these types the specific descriptions were judged to be of most value. Individual anecdotes frequently contained statements of all four kinds.

At first teachers had difficulty in deciding what incidents to describe as they studied individual children. Their initial choices were based largely upon the following considerations: the child's success or failure in school work, the child as a disturbing or helpful element in carrying on classroom routine, the status of the child's family in the community, and the child's personal attractiveness or repulsiveness to the teacher. As time went on, however, these teachers selected incidents more and more because of their significance in connection with the children's particular developmental tasks. There was thus a definite shift in what the teachers recognized as important.

The series of excellent anecdotes presented as examples of what these teachers were learning to do illustrates the great skill in describing human behavior which can be developed by people without previous special training.

² Other chapters of *Helping Teachers Understand Children* deal explicitly with the interpretation of case material.

Who shall teach, how long may one teach, what determines teachers' salaries, and how may professional improvement and advancement be secured are some of the problems that must be solved if American children are to have the quality and quantity of teachers they need. Arbitrary and archaic rules and policies are the controls that have eliminated potentially good teachers and have affected the continued employment of others. Miss Bain is president of Wheelock College, Boston, and chairman of the Board of Editors for Childhood Education.

PROCEDURES ADOPTED BY SCHOOL SYSTEMS for regulating the employment of teachers raise or lower the status of the profession as a whole. They also influence the efficiency of individual teachers. The problem of proper employment provisions is therefore important for the welfare of the nation's children.

In the decade before the war considerable progress was made. The emergency teacher shortage created by the war, however, slowed the tempo and in some instances halted progress. Now is the time to renew our efforts to solve adequately such problems as: who shall teach, how long may one teach, what determines teachers' salaries, how professional improvements may be secured.

Who Shall Teach?

In a single war year—1943-44—50,000 emergency certificates for teaching were issued in the United States. This, in all probability, was typical of the other war years. At least we know that the shortage of teachers was not relieved in the succeeding year—1944-45.

One explanation for the issuance of so many substandard certificates in this time of teacher shortage is that qualifying standards had been increased markedly in the decade just preceding the entrance of the United States into the world conflict.

Controls Teacher

There was a time within the recollection of many of us when a six weeks' institute beyond elementary school was considered sufficient preparation for a teacher in the elementary school, provided he could pass a rudimentary examination in the branches of study to be taught. Had our standards remained at this low ebb or even at the level of 1931, when three years of preparation beyond high school had become the usual requirement for elementary teachers in good schools, the war crisis in teacher certification might have gone unnoticed.

In the decade between 1931 and 1941 the percentage of cities over 2,500 population requiring four years of preparation for newly appointed elementary teachers had risen from 6 to 63 per cent according to a survey¹ made by the Research Division of the National Education Association. This study reports further that four years' preparation for junior high school teaching was required by 51 per cent of the cities surveyed in 1931 and by 92 per cent of a comparable sampling in 1941. Senior high schools which have more generally required higher standards of preparation in the past indicated the beginning of a trend toward requiring five years of preparation, the proportion of cities having this standard being 4 per cent in 1931 and 12 per cent ten years later.

Cynics have derided the schools for their efforts to secure better educated teachers making invidious comparisons between successful "self-made" schoolma'ams who have

¹ Reported in *Research Bulletin*, volume 20, number 2, March 1942, page 56. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association.

By WINIFRED E. BAIN

Affecting Employment

grown by virtue of their own wit and resourcefulness in their classrooms and some of the raw new products of the colleges. But those close to the production centers for new teachers can see a marked elevation in maturity, knowledge, wisdom and skill of newly qualified beginning teachers. In recognition of their longer period of preparation city systems are less often requiring experience and are more flexible in considering minimum age limits for initial employment. There was a time during the depression years when young inexperienced teachers were at a loss to know where they could ever prove themselves since so many schools demanded previous experience of their candidates.

Wags too have ridiculed specific certification standards which required certain college credits for courses in this, that, or the other branch of pedagogy. Perhaps these requirements were crutches for certifying agencies in the period of transition from local to broader bases of control in this matter. Recent trends have given the responsibility for determining qualifications of teachers to state departments of education. They in turn quite generally now accept as qualified the graduates of institutions accredited by agencies such as the American Association of Teachers Colleges. This move has taken the emphasis away from specific credit requirements, placing it instead on the total program of the college, the quality of teaching, and the available facilities such as laboratories and libraries. It has tended to raise the standards of teachers colleges in

selective admission and in curriculum, and has insured a better product. For the most part colleges have been valiant in maintaining high standards throughout the war. This fact furnishes another explanation for present teacher shortages and the consequent makeshift emergency appointments in the schools.

Teacher examinations appear to have been on the decline in recent years except in large cities where the supply of applicants always exceeds the demand for appointments. School administrators have felt that qualified colleges provide a better sifting process for teaching candidates than do the examinations. In 1940 the National Teacher Examinations were introduced as a standardized measure of certain professional qualifications. Thousands of teachers have taken them and some school systems now require that candidates attain a certain minimum score before they can be considered for appointment. It is not expected that they will ever be the only qualification considered nor that a given standing will automatically insure appointment or a place on the preferred list for appointment.

Among feminine candidates only spinsters need apply for teaching positions in 58 per cent of cities studied by the N.E.A.² in 1941. In an additional 29 per cent their chances of appointment are determined by special consideration of extenuating circumstances. Variations in this practice are greater in different regions than in cities of different size. If a woman teacher wishes to avoid the shackles of celibacy, her chances are fair in the South where 30 to 43 per cent of the cities have no prejudices against employing married women. She should avoid New England, the Middle States, and the Northwest where less than 5 per cent of cities will employ her after marriage, unless conditions have

² *Op. Cit.* p. 60.

changed since 1941. There was no marked change in this discrimination in the decade prior to the war, so far as could be determined in the study from which these figures were quoted. Yet this is a handicap in the personal life of women teachers which we should hope might be removed in the near future.

How Long May One Teach?

Women teachers who marry after appointment are subject to dismissal in a large proportion of cities unless again the shortages resulting from the war have caused changes not yet reported. Permanent tenure is a protection. Still 28 per cent of all cities reporting in 1941 indicated that women teachers would be dismissed the day after the wedding and 33 per cent would permit them to teach only to the end of the current school year. Again regional differences are great. Only 12 per cent of the New England cities reported that they would retain teachers married while in service and only 10 per cent of the cities in the Middle and Northwestern States, while 60 and 62 per cent of the Middle Atlantic and Southeastern States would do so.

Rules for terminating the appointment of women teachers at the time of marriage are probably the most clear-cut, mandatory provisions for eliminating otherwise qualified individuals from the profession. Even age of retirement usually allows some choice—a person may retire with benefits at sixty and must retire at sixty-five or seventy according to the regulations of the district. Most teachers serve under contracts or permanent tenure. A positive trend was shown in 1941³ away from annual appointments toward greater permanency. Permanent tenure after a probationary period was reported in 40 per cent of the cities against 28 per cent in 1931. The chances for permanent tenure

decrease with the size of the city. This decrease probably reaches a vanishing point in small towns and rural areas.

There has been considerable debate over the desirability of permanent tenure and not without some basis for argument. Cities with tenure provisions are wary about continuing new teachers beyond the probationary period if there is any uncertainty about population trends or budgetary allowances. This caution tends to keep a rotation of beginners circulating in and out of the schools. Then, too, it is said that some teachers become complacent under the influence of security, making it difficult to persuade them to leave the system peaceably since other pastures are naturally less comfortable and green. The merits of tenure are found in peace of mind for the conscientious and efficient teacher and continuity of service for the schools. These are great enough to warrant recommending the practice but permanent tenure will be a benefit only when high ethical and professional standards are exercised. Teachers should not receive permanent appointments unless they are of high caliber. If they prove themselves unworthy of the terms of permanent appointment, they are still subject to dismissal with stipulated prior notification and right of hearing.

What Determines Teachers' Salaries?

From the outset in the United States salaries of teachers have increased with the advancing age of the children taught. Now it is good news to report a trend toward equal pay for equal preparation. At the beginning of the war nearly a third of our cities⁴ had adopted this policy. Thus the better preparation of elementary teachers previously noted is shown to have its rewards in dollars and cents. No more

³ *Op cit.* p. 77 ff.

⁴ Reported in *Research Bulletin*, volume 20, number 3, May 1942, page 88. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association.

heartening procedure could be fostered in the postwar period than that which demands that little children be taught by well-prepared and well-paid people.

Traditionally, too, men have been paid more than women. The N.E.A. study shows that by 1941, 53 per cent of the cities made no distinction between men and women in their salary schedules for high schools, and in the larger cities, those over 100,000 inhabitants, 85 per cent had no sex discrimination. Women teachers have a better chance of equality with men in the far west than in New England where the traditional discrimination lingers more determinedly.

Little discrimination between colored and white teachers has been noted except in the Southern States where schedules for colored teachers are reported lower than for white in about 75 per cent of the city schools. Other states have not been confronted with the problem of employing colored teachers to any considerable extent. They will in all likelihood find the need for placing colored teachers in the schools in greater numbers as time goes on and policies of equality of opportunity will be of great importance.

How May Professional Improvement and Advancement Be Secured?

The past several years have shown a trend toward year-round pay for teachers. It seems relatively unimportant whether the annual salary is divided into eight, nine, ten, or twelve payments since a teacher must provide for long vacation periods whether or not the school system withholds a portion of the salary until summer arrives. Many teachers use summer periods for travel, study, or other means of self-improvement. Some school systems require such activities as a condition for continuation of appointment or for promotion. Others compensate by paying a bonus.

During the school year, too, opportunities are offered in many places for special college or university courses, committee work, workshops, and departmental meetings involving study and stimulation for the growth of teachers and benefit of the schools. These, like academic study, are often set as conditions for advancement.⁵

Brief absences are quite commonly allowed with pay for illness and for certain professional purposes such as attending educational meetings and visiting other schools. Extended leaves of absence for travel and professional improvement were allowed by 71 per cent of cities reporting to the N.E.A. in 1941 as against 43 per cent in 1931; 21 per cent of the leaves were given with some salary during the absence as against only 9 per cent in 1931.

These are among the better trends toward advancement of efficiency in teaching personnel. Yet possibilities in this area have scarcely been tapped. In future years there should be better standards and better provisions. Perhaps there will be less quantitative requirements of study and more qualitative. For instance it is not uncommon now for good high school teachers with all the quantitative requirements of college credits to be promoted to principalships of elementary schools. Often they know little or nothing about the problems which confront them in this new setting. Then again conscientious teachers sometimes find their strength severely taxed when they add to the daily task of work well done the load of college course requirements for self-improvement.

Conditions of employment affect the happiness and security of individual teachers; they determine the status of the teaching profession; they reflect on the effectiveness of education of the children. The post-war era must see advancement.

⁵ Editor's Note: See "In-service Teacher Education—Some Implications for Administration and Support" by Karl W. Bigelow on page 227 of this issue.

Learning Through Friendships With Children

Here is an account of the kind of pre-service teacher education the students, who are taking the elementary course in child development, are receiving at Mount Holyoke College. How fundamental such study is and what it contributes to both children and students are sharply pointed out by Miss McFarland, assistant professor at Mount Holyoke College, South Hadley, Massachusetts.

A STUDENT PULLS FRANK'S TIGHT RUBBERS up over the heels of his shoes, then gives his foot a friendly pat. Frank looks at her and says with a self-conscious laugh, "You like me, don't you?"

Skip is a "tough little boy" but each week he watches for a special student and when she is telling a story he always joins the small group clustered about her. Sometimes he refuses to sit down but stands close to the student, circling her neck with his arm.

Patsy is shy and withdrawn and eleven years old. She seldom talks to anyone but she has made friends with a student whom she follows into one activity after another and to whom she has finally confided her worries about her broken home.

Skip and Patsy are the children of working mothers who go to the children's centers before and after school. They have fun in the centers and enjoy working and playing together. But they are reaching out for the personal companionship they should find in their families where there are fewer people and where the sense of belongingness is deeper than it can be in even the best recreational group.

That the students in a measure meet the

children's hunger for personal contact and the feeling "you like me" can be seen in the eagerness with which they look forward to the days when "the girls come" and the warmth with which they greet them. Many of the children are constant in their friendships with particular girls and the groups are small enough for opportunities to be close to them. One of the students helps those who are interested in dramatizations. Two girls and the children set up the materials for easel painting, finger painting, or clay modeling. Children and young adults paint and model side by side. The children love the feeling that the students enjoy games or sports or painting or singing with them as partners or participators rather than as teachers.

The older boys at the center find the confinement of continuous big group membership irksome and resist it by playing truant or by disruptive horseplay. But with three of the girl students they are eager and enthusiastic about exploring their city—the daily newspaper, the fire station, the factories where paper or textiles are made, the museum and other places where adventure and understanding are to be found. These explorations with the students give them a sense of freedom.¹

The students are Mount Holyoke College girls who are taking the elementary course in child development. They sense the children's needs and find deeper understanding of child nature through the closeness of their relationship with them than

¹ *Don't Fence Me In* is the song the children most frequently request the students to sing with them.

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International News Photo

Observing the newborn

they have found in observation without contact. In this kind of laboratory experience, the students seem to gain some perception of the relationships between the children's individual behavior and their experiences, as well as an understanding of trends of interests and behavior at different age levels.

The community is the laboratory for such study. The special conditions are those experienced by real children in their natural setting. It is a particularly satisfying laboratory for students because they like the realism of the study of human development in actual circumstances and because there are precious emotional values in the association with children who like you, reach out to you, and make you feel needed. The students feel that what they are learning has an obvious social value.

Other Experiences

Newborn babies are observed in the city hospital. The reactions of full-term infants are compared with those of babies prematurely born. Twins are observed. Nurses working with the babies discuss them with the students. The special problems of mothering foundling infants are discussed.

Students in advanced courses participate in the effort to understand the individual needs of children in the child care centers. Eight little six-year-olds in one of the centers "belong" to three students who meet with them once a week. The students visit them in their first grade, record their behavior there, and after school arrange many types of play experiences with them. Sometimes they take them to bor-



International News Photo
Recording creative play

row books at the library, to ride on a bus, to have ice cream, as mothers who are not working do. Occasionally when the children are at home with their families, they are visited by their student friends.

Tests for the children are arranged by the students. Careful records are kept of their behavior and of their environmental circumstances. The teachers, the nurse, the parents and sometimes the social worker are consulted, and at the end of weeks of such friendly relationship the compiled records are turned over to the center teachers so that they may understand the children's needs more fully. The long hours of the children's centers and the large number of children in proportion to the number of staff members have made the consistent study of individual needs very difficult for teachers to make.

Advanced students participating in the

teaching of nursery age children work with them in two environments. Those in the children's school on the campus are growing up in a village of homes separated from one another by grassy places—homes in which most of the mothers do not work and in which the fathers are usually present. The children in the Jackson Parkway Children's Center in Holyoke live in the more congested sections of the city. Many of their homes are part of a city housing project. Here more children belong to mothers who are working and to fathers who are in the armed services.

The students say, "The children at Jackson Parkway are more affectionate. They pay more attention to me."

"The children in the campus school are more vigorous in creative play."

"The children in the campus school come eagerly, but the Jackson Parkway children often resist coming to school and cry when their mothers leave them. Is the day too long in the children's center?"

"The children in the campus school seem bigger to me."

A four-year-old refuses to use the wash-bowl after Frankie, a Negro child, has washed. A student asks, "What is the attitude toward Negroes in his neighborhood? What does Frankie feel?"

Earnest is thin and pale and has poor teeth. He eats spaghetti and drinks soda pop when he is not eating at school. A student asks, "Aren't there agencies to help mothers who cannot plan wisely for their children? But why is there no clinic nearer his home?"

A child is rejected at Jackson Parkway² because his particular need does not come under the classifications permitted by the Lanham Act regulations. A student asks, "What can we do to get a broader interpretation of responsibility for children's

² Jackson Parkway is operated by the College in cooperation with the city school department, but the funds come largely from a Lanham grant.

needs? Why are public funds for children not independent of any other purpose?"

Exposure to the influence of political measures, housing, social and economic issues upon the development of children whom they know and understand and for whom they have responsibility gives the students an opportunity to perceive the problem of providing for human development in a broader sense than would be possible without such experience. It also stimulates a deeper awareness of the development of children as the basic approach to human progress.

Dinner time for the children and Ruthie, one of the two-year-olds, is sitting at a small table with a student and two other children. She eats with eagerness but soon slides out of her chair to put her head in the student's lap. She looks up laughingly

as the student hugs her and sends her back to her chair. Two kinds of hunger are satisfied. Ruthie has attached herself to this particular student and follows her about much as two-year-olds at home follow their mothers. The student helps Ruthie hold her sense of being loved and highly valued even though her mother is working and she is spending long hours in the nursery school.

The interchange between the students and the children of the community gives the laboratory experience its deepest values in understanding and satisfaction. In the war years when children's needs were intensified and when everyone felt special need to have some part in the preservation of human values, it was good for the students, too, to find that their learning experiences have social significance.



Visiting the paper mill

We Continue To Be Tardy

AGAIN WE MUST APOLOGIZE to our subscribers for the tardiness of the September through December issues of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION, and ask for continued patience as we attempt to meet the problems of reconversion. Editorial deadlines have been moved ahead in the hope that the extra time will enable the printer to meet his deadlines for proof and mailing. As personnel and materials become more easily available and as revised schedules become routinized, we have hope that the magazine can arrive on time.

At the same time we would like to express our appreciation to the contributors to CHILDHOOD EDUCATION. Most of them have prepared their manuscripts under duress, meeting emergencies in their own jobs and families, yet coming through on time and in many instances ahead of time. There has been only one "mortality" to date among our invited contributors. He was sent by the government on an unexpected jaunt around the world and found it impossible to prepare his manuscript on the floor of a bomber.

Time and again the contributors have apologized because their manuscripts were not better prepared. For their encouragement and as a small expression of gratitude to them we are glad to announce that we have never received more favorable comment on any issues than we have received on those published so far this year. Under duress or not, contributors have come through with manuscripts our subscribers like.

In 1946 we hope for more prompt production and distribution.

The Children's Book Council Luncheon

IT IS SIGNIFICANT that the book receiving this year's award by the Child Study Association of America is a book of "social import." *The Moved Outers*, by Florence Crannell Means, a story of a Japanese family removed to a relocation center during the war, received the award from Dorothy Canfield Fisher at the luncheon sponsored by the Children's Book Council in New York City, November 12. In presenting the scroll award to Houghton Mifflin Company, publishers of *The Moved Outers*, Mrs. Fisher cited for honorable mention three other books—*A City for Lincoln* by John R. Tunis, *A Sea Between* by Lavinia R. Davis, and *Call Me Charley* by Jesse Jackson.

Across the

One well-known editor of books for children remarked informally following the luncheon that she hoped twentieth century adults would not make the same mistake some of our grandparents did in seeing that children read only books "good for them—those with a moral. Even intercultural relations can be overdone and we shall find the children having none of them, just as we rejected the moralistic tales of an earlier era," she concluded.

If we are smart we shall take our cues from the children. Our responsibility to them is to provide them with many kinds of books, to stand by to give whatever guidance seems wise, and to hope that there will be a healthy progression in the development of their taste, regardless of awards and such. "Awards," said Mrs. Fisher, "prevent the overlooking of a very good book in the crowd of those published."

Louis Adamic spoke on "America is American," criticizing American history textbooks for their representation of this country solely as a "White-Protestant-Anglo-Saxon country." He urged that immigration from many countries—the story of immigration from the sixteenth century down to the present—should be the basis and center of the story of American history in the textbooks, as it actually was. "We need scores of children's books which will tell the story of our four hundred year immigration and will glory in our diversity," he concluded.

Miami Workshop FROM JOHN L. BLAIR, chairman of the Miami

Workshop Committee, has come an announcement of "Working Together for Ohio's Schools," a report of the second Miami Workshop, held at the University, Oxford, Ohio. This workshop was one of the cooperative projects of the colleges of education of the five state universities in Ohio. Mr. Blair reports it as an interesting demonstration of what can be accomplished by the universities of a state when they work together toward a goal of common interest to them and to the school people of the state. The report will be of interest because of the possibilities it suggests to other states and because of

the Editor's Desk

its content, devoted to such materials as: Relationships Among School People and the Public, Purposes the Schools Need to Serve, Some Educational Experiences Students Need to Have in Today's World, Judging the Demands Made on the School Program, and The Teacher as the Key to the School's Effectiveness. Copies of this report may be obtained from the Miami Workshop Committee, College of Education, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio.

Virgil Herrick of the University of Chicago is preparing a manuscript, "The Values of Workshops," for the March issue of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION. A comparison of Mr. Herrick's evaluation with this report, "Working Together for Ohio's Schools," should give an interesting perspective on workshops.

More About Family Living THOSE OF YOU WHO FOUND the October issue of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION helpful will be interested in reading "Family Life," volume ten, number eight of *Building America*. It gives a brief story of the historical development of the family and the sociological and economic factors that have affected its development and determined its modern pattern. analyzes some of the causes for conflicts and confusion in family life, describes some things that are being done to help families meet their problems, and reviews some of the essentials that make for more satisfying family life. *Building America* is published for the Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development of the National Education Association and may be obtained from 2 West Forty-fifth Street, New York 19, New York.

Toward Better Relationships ETHEL JOHNSON, Arizona State Teachers College, Tempe, described in a recent letter two activities which have helped to explain to parents the school program and the children's participation in it. Each week she sends to the parents a letter acquainting them with routine matters, community functions, centers of interest, solicitations for suggestions and materials to help in school work, what skills and habits are receiving attention and a few simple suggestions parents can

follow if they wish to further the emphasis in the home. Each week she calls attention to some special article she has read dealing with a common home-school problem and offers the magazine for loan to interested parents.

A second activity which has proved popular is the preparation of a scrapbook of snapshots of all kinds of projects in which the children engage, accompanied by a simple but complete statement of the learning that takes place while the children are so engaged. "I have notes of thanks from the parents on every kind of paper. Fathers especially like this way of visiting schools," reports Miss Johnson.

A group of teachers in a mid-western city feel that the problems of teachers and the purposes of modern education may better be understood by the board of education if the members see copies of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION regularly. So, these teachers have subscribed to the magazine for the president of the school board and have sent complimentary copies of the September issue to all the other board members.

Several parents subscribe to the magazine for the teachers of their children, and several teachers subscribe for the parents of their children. We should begin to understand each other a little better with this exchange of information.

Teacher Shortage in Guam THE UNITED STATES MARINE CORPS informs us that eight of the sixteen girls in the senior class at Agana High School last year signified their intention of becoming teachers to help alleviate the shortage in the Guam public school system. An accompanying photograph of the girls shows them to be most attractive young women.

Before the war there were approximately 5,300 children attending school on Guam. During the two and a half years of Japanese occupation, the schools were closed. The AMG reopened the schools and the enrollment today is 6,595. Despite the increased enrollment, the number of teachers decreased. Morning and afternoon sessions were held and each teacher was forced to teach two classes instead of the customary one, reports Simon Sanchez, the superintendent. A call for volunteers to teach was sent to Guam's only high school and nearly fifty per cent of the class responded. There were seventeen seniors—sixteen girls and one boy.

Books FOR TEACHERS . . .

SCHOOL'S OUT. By Clara Lambert and staff members of the Play Schools Association. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1944. Pp. XII—225. \$2.50.

This book is concerned with children five to fourteen years of age. The authors designate this period as "the forgotten years." Though these children are often independent enough to look after themselves, to find things to do, and to accept separation from their parents, they are still emotionally immature and in need of adult guidance and security.

The authors feel that they have been the most neglected group during the war years. Communities were quick to recognize the necessity of services for children of nursery school age whose mothers worked. Likewise many communities made provisions for the adolescents who under the stress of war conditions were in danger of becoming delinquents. But the needs of the in-between years and the problems of the school-age child have not as often been recognized.

School's Out offers constructive suggestions and help for parents, community leaders, and teachers on the practical aspects of planning a program for school-age children. The staff of the Play Schools Association, which has pioneered in this field for a number of years prior to the war, contributes its valuable experience as a guide for all those engaged and interested in this rapidly growing movement of play centers for children after school, on Saturdays, holidays, and during vacation months.

While the book will be of special interest to those who have had contact with the school age centers in war areas, it is a timely and helpful guide to all those responsible and concerned with community postwar planning. Since the roots of war are laid in the frustrations, neglect, and lack of consideration for children in their formative years, it is every community's obligation to see that its young population has security and safety, and is nurtured through a wholesome play program.

In the chapter on Learning and Growing Through Play, the authors help us to understand the importance of play in the child's life.

It is summed up in this statement: Play is "the great bridge over which children must pass in order to grow up, to make a successful journey from childhood to adulthood." Other aspects of putting a program into operation are discussed, such as materials, methods, need for parent participation in community planning, and the essential qualities of teachers chosen as leaders for the program.

Although the title of the book is somewhat misleading, the author and her associates present two aspects of improving the opportunities for school-age children: *First*, play centers meet the needs of school-age children with "no place to play, nothing to do," and offer experiences to foster their best development. Parents, school, and community leaders have a responsibility to plan together for the child's free hours when the school session is over. *Second*, an underlying thread in the book is the challenge to carry over from the play center program certain values into the regular school classes and to create a climate in which pupil-teacher relationships are a positive force for individual growth and development.—Hazel F. Gabbard, Senior Specialist, Extended School Services, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

A STUDY OF YOUNG CHILDREN. By Ruth Strang, Nashville, Tennessee; Abingdon-Cokesbury Press, 1944. Pp. 160. Sixty cents.

This book is a leadership training text for nursery and kindergarten church school teachers. It gives a sound and well-rounded basic understanding of what children are like and how they develop in the early years. The language is simple and direct, the illustrative material telling. It is written by an authority in the field of child development and reflects much of the up-to-date thinking and research in that field.

The author says that "very little attempt is made to talk about religion" but throughout the book there are references to specific ways of helping children develop religious feeling as well as emphasis on helping them to "live joyfully, cooperatively, religiously everyday." It

has no denominational slant, but it is truly religious.

The lists of books and materials at the end would be helpful to any church school teacher, though they could well be extended, particularly in regard to some of the modern publications of the various denominational presses.

Perhaps a minor, but certainly an important characteristic of the book, is its small size and its cheapness. Every teacher of young children in church schools of every denomination should own it.—*Abigail A. Eliot, Ruggles Street Nursery School, Boston.*

EDUCATION AND THE PROMISE OF AMERICA. By *George S. Counts*, New York: *The Macmillan Company*, 1945, Pp. 157. \$1.50.

"The present is a time for greatness—it is a time for great education, for an education generously and nobly conceived, for an education that expresses boldly and imaginatively the full promise of America." Such is the challenge to students of education set forth by George S. Counts in this latest volume of the Kappa Delta Pi lecture series. He makes clear that while we in America have had unsurpassed faith in the value of education we have failed to develop a truly great education, an education that expresses the best in our heritage. He explains in some detail how our American civilization has been developed, what influences have shaped our ethical standards and allegiances, why we have now, with the rest of the world, fallen into deep crisis.

His analysis of the education needed for America in the industrial age, his fervid plea for an invigorated education guided by great purposes, deserve the serious attention of every teacher and administrator.

The birthright of every child, he tells us,

should be a conception of life, imparted by his elders, which will call forth his fullest efforts and finest qualities. The early period of life, even before school age, is extremely important in laying the foundation for all later development. We cannot rely, however, on childhood education alone for a safe and glorious future. Our free way of life may be lost before the children grow up. We must expect the current interest in adult education to expand.

If we are to live up to our great moral commitments as a people, then we must extend to every individual the opportunity "to achieve full maturity and the highest standards of excellence of which he is capable." We must educate for a society of free men, with stress on the virtues of truthfulness, honesty, fairness, and scientific temper. We must educate for a society of equal men, striving to break down prejudices and hatreds, to develop tolerance, understanding of other people, appreciation of differences among religions, nationalities, and races. We must educate for a society of cooperative men, realizing that the rise of industrial civilization calls for "a new morality more social, more cooperative, more public than the morality of the past." We must educate for an economy of plenty, recognizing that modern science now makes possible a rich life for all. A civilization of beauty and grandeur is our goal, one in which artistic interests and artistic talents will find satisfaction. Our children must develop a deep sense of responsibility for developing and conserving our civilization in order that it may be enduring. They must learn to live intelligently on this planet. By sympathetic study of the great cultures of the world they must be ready to participate in "an emerging world civilization."—*C. B. B.*

In-Service Teacher Education

(Continued from page 231)

vigorously pressing for a sharp increase in the provision for activities which he considers to have demonstrated their value over and over again. He believes that in-service education is the great emergent to which school administrators must attend in the decades to come.

Guiding the growth of children is not a simple job. How to do it well cannot, even under the best of circumstances, be fully and finally learned during the period in which a teacher is prepared. How it is done, moreover,

will depend not only on a teacher's understanding but also on the stimulus and satisfaction offered by the conditions under which he works. For both of these reasons school administrators should provide opportunities that enable teachers to make the most of their existing powers and that facilitate their growth in professional competence. Financial support for programs of in-service education, including child study, is essential if teachers are to guide child growth effectively.

Bulletins AND PAMPHLETS . . .

Education—American Scene

THE UNITED STATES QUARTERLY BOOK LIST. Edited by Joseph P. Blickensderfer. Vol 1, No. 1, March 1945. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office. Pp. 64. Thirty-five cents per copy; \$1.25, volume.

In the Final Act of the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace held at Buenos Aires in 1936 it was recommended that each American republic issue a quarterly bulletin containing bibliographical notice of recently published works of a scholarly nature. The Book List is a response to that recommendation.

The 132 reviews included in the initial publication are contributed by scholars who are specialists in their various fields. As might be expected, the reviews are concise, searching and authoritative. The Book List will be useful to persons who wish to keep informed of recent works concerned with scientific, historical, literary or artistic subjects.—Katharine Koch, reading teacher, Mary Phillips School, Mishawaka, Indiana.

CERTAIN PERSONNEL PRACTICES IN THE CHICAGO PUBLIC SCHOOLS. Prepared by the National Commission for the Defense of Democracy Through Education, National Education Association. Washington 6, D. C.: the Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. Pp. 66. Free.

Although hampered by a policy of non-cooperation by the Chicago Board of Education, the committee investigating the personnel practices in the Chicago school system secured much evidence for its report. The evidence unmistakably reveals administrative practices which are not only destructive of teacher morale but are also destructive of public confidence in the schools. Specific data are given to prove that political manipulation has been largely responsible for the grave injustice which has been done through transfer and demotion of school employees.

The Committee points out that although public protest against present administrative practices has been made, such protest will not become effective until it expresses itself at the polls.—Hannah M. Lindahl, supervisor of elementary education, Mishawaka, Indiana.

COMPULSORY PEACETIME MILITARY TRAINING. By a special sub-committee of the Educational Policies Commission. Washington, D. C.: The National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. Pp. 15. Ten cents.

Every American interested in education should read this comprehensive statement of the reasons why the Educational Policies Commission opposes the enactment of a law to establish compulsory peacetime military training.—Ethel Kavin, director of guidance, Glencoe Public Schools, Glencoe, Illinois.

STUDENT PERSONNEL WORK IN THE POST-WAR COLLEGE. By Willard W. Blaesser and Others. Series VI, Student Personnel Work, No. 6. Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place. Pp. 95. Seventy-five cents.

Written in an interesting manner, this study is an honest and capable approach to the problems which face colleges in the post-war period. The study does not attempt to answer all questions of personnel administration but stresses the need for wise and sympathetic counseling to meet adequately the complexities which college life offers returned service men and civilians.—K. K.

WOMEN IN THE POST-WAR. Prepared by the War Manpower Commission, Women's Advisory Committee, April 1945. Washington, D. C.: War Manpower Commission. Pp. 10. No price given.

This publication, though brief, presents with clarity and directness: (1) some of the problems pertaining to reconversion and the employment of women, and (2) recommenda-

tions and proposals relating to the problems. With a forward look, the committee recommends vigorous, constructive action, such as federal aid to education, and expansion of child care facilities and services, equal pay for equal work, and full enforcement of existing federal and state child-labor laws. Other equally important recommendations are made.—H. M. L.

EDUCATION—WHY THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT MUST HELP. By N. E. A. *Division of Research.* Washington 6, D. C.: *National Education Association*, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W. Pp. 23. Free.

This bulletin makes a very clear case for the need for federal aid to education in order to wipe out existing inequalities of educational opportunity in our country. Teachers, administrators, and parents who are searching for items of information to use as evidence in trying to win supporters to the federal aid program will find this bulletin exceedingly helpful.

Throughout the presentation there is frequent reference to the fact that federal aid does not mean federal control.—H.M.L.

Special Education

THE FARTHEST CORNER; AN OUTLINE OF THE CEREBRAL PALSY PROBLEM IN TEXT AND PICTURES. By T. Arthur Turner under supervision of Dr. Winthrop Morgan Phelps. Elyria, Ohio: *National Society for Crippled Children and Adults, Inc.* Pp. 19. Price not given.

A valuable booklet giving a simple, concise, and graphic explanation of the problems which beset the child with cerebral palsy. This booklet should be read by all who are interested in the welfare of crippled children. It should be available in every school so that any teacher might read it when she finds in her group a child with this type of handicap.—E. K.

POUNDS AND INCHES; WHAT GROWTH IS. By School Health Bureau, Welfare Division, Metropolitan Life Insurance Company. New York: *the Company*, 1 Madison Avenue. Pp. 4. Free distribution upon request.

A leaflet stating concisely the values of continuous school records of individual height and weight for every pupil. A leaflet for every teacher may be had upon request.—E. K.

GOOD FOOD. A Tentative Program for Learning Experiences in Foods in the Elementary School, Grades I-VI. Prepared by Thyrza A. Sperry and financed by the War Food Administration. Pullman, Washington: *State College of Washington.* Pp. 46. Price not given.

The need for stimulating better teaching about nourishing foods and the development of good food habits prompted the preparation of the material in this bulletin. Definite suggestions on how to teach nutrition are given through the presentation of experience activities and units for grades one to six. The bibliography directs teachers to helpful books and pamphlets for use in teaching the units.—H. M. L.

WHEN YOUR CHILD STARTS TO SCHOOL. A Handbook for Parents and Kindergarten Teachers. Prepared by teachers of the Oak Park Kindergartens under the direction of Devona M. Price, director, Division of Methods and Research. Oak Park, Illinois: *Oak Park Elementary Schools.* Pp. 18. Price not given.

This helpful handbook about the goals and activities of the kindergarten period will be appreciated by both teachers and parents. It deals with practical matters such as the day's program, the purposes to be achieved, and some of the basic needs of childhood. Its conciseness will appeal to parents who do not have time to read lengthy, philosophical treatises on educational goals.—H. M. L.

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL PLANS FOR SAFE LIVING, Part I, and TEACHERS AND CHILDREN PLAN FOR SAFE LIVING, Part II. Prepared by a Joint Committee of the Department of Elementary School Principals and the National Commission on Safety Education. Washington 6, D. C.: *National Education Association*, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. Pp. Part I, 24, and Part II, 24. Each part, thirty cents.

Both principals and teachers will find specific help in these bulletins on the planning of safety education. The statistics on accidents and the suggestions for providing effective safety programs will be useful in organizing safety instruction.—H. M. L.

GIRL SCOUTS ALL—LEADER'S GUIDE FOR WORKING WITH THE HANDICAPPED. New York 17, N. Y.: *Girl Scouts*, 155 East 44th Street. Pp. 28. Price not given.

In December 1943 figures indicate that one hundred thirty-six active Girl Scout troops had been organized in schools and institutions for the handicapped. The values accrued in terms of heightened morale, growth in self-dependence, and satisfaction in belonging to something bigger than an institution have been both immediate and far-reaching.

A useful part of the guide book offers suggestions for specialized programs of activities suitable for the blind, the crippled, the cardiac and tuberculous, the deaf, the diabetic, and the mentally and socially handicapped groups.—K. K.

Education—International Scene

LOOK BEYOND THE LABEL. By Irene D. Jaworski. New York 19: Bureau for Intercultural Education, 1697 Broadway. Pp. 18. No price given.

The teacher in the secondary school who is looking for a play which treats the subject of national, racial, and religious discrimination will find in this pamphlet an effective dramatic presentation. The play is easily adapted to fit the needs of local communities and is suitable for either stage or radio use.—K. K.

THE STUDY OF INTERGROUP RELATIONS. Reprint of papers presented at the 1945 meeting of the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education with an introductory note by Karl W. Bigelow. May be obtained from Lloyd Allen Cook, Ohio State University, Columbus 10, Ohio. Pp. 51. Price not given.

The Association for Childhood Education furnishes one delegate and one ex-officio representative to the Council that published this reprint.

It is the expressed purpose of the Council to effect actual changes in the preparation of teachers in order that right attitudes toward intergroup relations may be developed and

thus passed on to children. The papers by Ethel J. Alpenfels, Robert J. Havighurst, Frank E. Baker, Julius Warren, and Lloyd Allen Cook amplify this viewpoint in thought-provoking analyses of intergroup problems and methods of helping teachers to face them.—K. K.

ONLY BY UNDERSTANDING. Headline Series No. 52. By William G. Carr. New York 16, N. Y.: *Foreign Policy Association Incorporated*, 22 East 38th Street. Pp. 96. Published bi-monthly. Two dollars for ten copies. Single copies, twenty-five cents.

By sketching the outstanding points of contrast between educational policies of the United States and those of Germany during the years from 1917 to 1940, the author highlights the power of education to shape the destiny of a country. The fact that education must become a matter of international concern and cooperation is emphasized and the slow steps toward that desired goal are traced in the remainder of the study.

Excellent bibliographical material is included. Included, also, is a report of recommendations for post-war social education by Roy A. Price, chairman of the Advisory Commission on Post-war Policy of the National Council for the Social Studies.—K. K.

EDUCATION UNDER ENEMY OCCUPATION. Bulletin 1945, No. 3, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office. Pp. 71. Fifteen cents.

The papers included in this bulletin reveal the effects of war and enemy occupation on the educational systems of Belgium, China, Czechoslovakia, France, Greece, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, and Poland. Prepared by the ministers of education or their representatives, they contain authentic information which makes engrossing and heartbreaking reading. The use of the bulletin in secondary schools and colleges will lead to a deeper appreciation of the courage with which the youth of wartorn countries met disaster and hardships.—K. K.

News HERE AND THERE . . .

Lucy Gage

Word has come to A. C. E. Headquarters of the passing on October 30 of Lucy Gage of Nashville, Tennessee. Miss Gage was nationally known in the field of elementary education. She was a past president of the National Council of Primary Education, a member of the Advisory Committee of the Association for Childhood Education, and active in many other education groups. Although Miss Gage retired in the summer of 1942 after twenty years as professor of elementary education at George Peabody College for Teachers, she never ceased to give counsel and encouragement that inspired all who came in contact with her.

Julia L. Hahn wrote for the May 1942 issue of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION a tribute to the life and work of Lucy Gage which we hope all of you will read again. From the many other tributes paid to Miss Gage at the time of her retirement this one seems particularly appropriate now:

The immortality of Lucy Gage is assured if one thinks of immortality in terms of good passed on from generation to generation. The expansive spirit of Lucy Gage will forever march among the pillars of Peabody.

One might well add, "and through the elementary schools of our nation."

May Murray

May Murray passed away early in November in Chautauqua, New York, at the age of eighty-three. She served as secretary of the International Kindergarten Union for twelve years and was editor of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION during its first two years, 1924-26. Miss Murray opened and directed the first headquarters office of the International Kindergarten Union, now the Association for Childhood Education, in Washington, D. C., in 1924. Much of the strength of the A. C. E. today is the result of Miss Murray's fine business ability, careful work and wide vision. In her last report, presented at the annual convention in Kansas City, Missouri, in 1926 we find:

With these twelve years of experience, now drawn to a close, I would emphasize for future consideration

the needs already suggested: a deeper feeling of responsibility along the line of professional duty and privilege of membership that the I. K. U. may continue to grow and enlarge its field of usefulness: closer touch between I. K. U. and branches, that our clubs and associations may be more directly benefited by affiliation; prompt response from members to the call for dues, so that our membership record may not be so uncertain and changeable; steady effort in increasing the number of branches and members. It is only through continued growth and support that the I. K. U. can enlarge its activities and its service to the kindergarten-primary field.

This challenge of hers comes to the A. C. E. today as fittingly as to the earlier organization twenty years ago.

Retirements and Resignation

Ethel Massengale retired this fall as supervisor of kindergarten and primary grades in the public schools of Atlanta, Georgia. Miss Massengale is a life member of the A. C. E., has long been a loyal and faithful participant in the work of the Association, and will be remembered by many as one of the hostesses at the 1939 convention in Atlanta.

Dodie Hooe is another life member who retired this year. She was supervisor of primary grades in the Dallas, Texas, public schools. In addition to her public school work Miss Hooe is the author of several school texts and has taught in the schools of education at the University of Texas, Texas State College for Women, and Southern Methodist University. She was the first president of the Texas A. C. E. and her sponsorship of the Dallas A. C. E. and the establishment of an outstanding professional library for its members are among her contributions to the teachers of Dallas.

Marjorie Hardy, a third life member, resigned in June 1945 from the principalship of the elementary department of the Germantown Friends School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. Miss Hardy was president of the international A. C. E. over the difficult period of 1941-43 and is an active member of the Philadelphia A. C. E. She continues to live in her Germantown home during the winter and enjoys her Maine home, Bay Meadow, during the summer months. She plans to continue her work for teachers and children through writing and other media.

Young Scott Books



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Changes

Marion Carswell from the education department of Smith College to City and Country School, New York, N. Y.

Mary Alice Jones from International Council of Religious Education, Chicago, Illinois, to children's book editor for Rand, McNally and Company, Chicago.

The Children of Europe

"The people of Europe will be cold and hungry this winter and privation and suffering resulting from war and occupation are pressing heavily on the children and young people," said Katherine Lenroot, chief of the Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, on her return from Paris where in October she attended the International Labor Conference as a Government advisor. Miss Lenroot continued:

Conditions in France are very serious, though somewhat better than last year. Infant mortality is up, sometimes more than double the normal figure. Mothers have insufficient milk to nurse their babies and health conditions among adolescents are particularly grave. Many cases of malnutrition and tuberculosis are reported among young people. France is short of fuel, food and clothing. It is especially hard to keep growing children in shoes.

The conditions described for France apply to many other countries, except that in some of these countries the conditions are far more serious as reported by delegates to the International Labor Conference. In Poland there will be many thousands of deaths from cold and exposure this winter. One million people are homeless, many of them living in holes in the ground and without adequate clothing or food. The Minister of Labor and Social Welfare in Poland said that his people could stand hunger but they could not stand lack of protection from cold. Conditions in Italy, Yugoslavia, Holland, Belgium, Greece and Czechoslovakia are also serious.

It is not only the physical problems of youth that are causing anxiety to many people in Europe. The breakup of families due to deportation of parents for forced labor, military service or the resistance movement have worked serious havoc. The standards of conduct in the resistance movement were exactly the opposite of those normally required—lying, stealing and concealing were essential virtues. It is now difficult for many adolescents to revert to normal standards, and juvenile delinquency in France, for example, is much higher than before the war.

There are two things which Americans must do immediately, both for the sake of humanity and for our own safety in the world of the future. First, support in every possible way the UNRRA appropriations, for UNRRA is the only agency we have with resources to begin to meet human need. An appropriation of \$550,000,000 has passed the House and is pending before the Senate and the President has requested an additional \$1,350,000,000 in accordance

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with obligations assumed under UNRRA policies. The appropriation of these amounts is the very least we can do as a people.

The second thing that citizens can do is to contribute clothing, food, toilet supplies and other necessities through voluntary organizations, clothing committees, and national, religious and other organizations. Channels are open in each community for this purpose.

Miss Lenroot visited Frankfurt and several other places in Germany observing the work of UNRRA for displaced persons. She saw two assembly centers and one children's center. There are 1,300,000 displaced persons still in Germany, of whom 100,000 to 125,000 are children under the age of fourteen years, and several thousand are orphan children without any relatives. Orphan children are being cared for in special children's centers but the great majority of children are living with their parents in assembly centers under very crowded conditions. "UNRRA is doing the best it can for these children and we should be proud of the service given by American social and health workers as well as workers from other lands," said Miss Lenroot.

The displaced persons themselves have started schools from nursery school through university, but there is great shortage of school supplies and materials and there are practically no toys for preschool children although recreational materials for adolescents are beginning to come in.

Play Materials for Displaced Children

Branches and individual members of the Association for Childhood Education are being offered an opportunity to help in supplying play materials for children under seven years old in the assembly centers described by Miss Lenroot in the preceding paragraphs. They are being urged to move quickly to take part in this program while the need is greatest. The Association is also informing other national organizations of its action so that they may, if they wish, invite their members to participate.

As its part in this project, the A. C. E. is preparing information about suitable materials that can be packed in containers uniform in size and weight to facilitate handling. UNRRA, which cannot supply play materials, has consented to transport the packages and to distribute them where they are most needed. The

specifications and directions for the delivery of completed packages to UNRRA distribution centers are being sent to A.C.E. branches and individual members through the *Branch Exchange*. Others who wish to help may secure this information by writing to A. C. E. Headquarters, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

UNESCO a Reality

At a conference held in London early in November, to which forty-three nations sent delegates, a constitution was adopted for a United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. According to this constitution, which becomes official upon ratification by twenty nations, UNESCO's purpose is to contribute to peace and security by giving "fresh impulse to popular education and to the spread of culture." "Intervening in matters which are essentially within the domestic jurisdiction of member states" is prohibited, but the periodic reports required from these states should reveal any anti-peace educational movements soon after their inauguration.

Over the objection of the delegates from the United States, who felt that relief and rehabilitation are the tasks of UNRRA, the agenda of the preparatory commission of UNESCO includes aid to European countries in rebuilding their schools.

The seat of the new organization will be in Paris.

Folkstories Censored

Word comes that allied authorities in Germany are censoring folkstories heard by German children to eliminate blood and torture incidents. The purpose is to avoid recalling some of the tortures actually used by the Nazis. "Cinderella" and "The Goose Girl" are two that have been censored.

Demand is High for Children's Books

The U. S. Department of Commerce finds that the greatest increase in book sales during the war was in children's books. The shortage of games and toys may have influenced the situation. It is thought that because millions of children have become accustomed to reading the demand for children's books will continue high.